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This working paper is the fifth in a series on Youth in Transition. Included are four papers plus comments on these papers. The findings are based on information gathered from approximately 2,000 high school teachers and 300 counselors. The teachers' and counselors' perceptions of the way our high schools are run and the impact of those schools on them are the two points investigated. Davidson, in the first paper, presents a design for the study of boys in their high school environment. Methods and techniques are explained with diagrams included. In the second paper, Johnston's findings include that teachers perceive the actual influence picture in the schools to be very hierarchical with those at the top exercising most of the power. Teacher influence is only moderate and is limited to the classroom. The third paper concludes that the large majority of high school teachers view themselves as satisfied with their career choice and job. The most satisfied also feel they have more influence than do less satisfied teachers. Rodgers notes, in the fourth paper, that administrators increase counselor satisfaction and their assessment of the quality of counseling to the extent that they are concerned with problems in their schools and are innovative in their approaches to these problems. (KJ)

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WORKING PAPER 5: AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS; SOME ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND FACTORS RELATED TO TEACHER SATISFACTION, COUNSELOR SATISFACTION AND THE QUALITY OF COUNSELING PROGRAMS

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Interim Report

Project No. 5-0196
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May, 1969

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education

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PREFACE

This working paper, the fifth in a series on the Youth in Transiton study is based on a symposium presented at the American Educational Research Association convention in Los Angeles on February 7, 1969. Included here are expanded versions of the four original papers presented by project staff members, as well as the comments of the members of the discussion panel. We wish to express our gratitude to the discussants - John Ferguson, Joseph Johnston, and Paul Polmantier - for permission to print their comments (which the edited somewhat for purposes of publication here).

As the first paper in this volume points out, the findings presented here are based on information gathered from the approximately 2000 high school teachers and 300 counselors in the study, not on data from the study's national sample of high school boys. At a later point in the study the information from these various sets of respondents will be merged, primarily for the purpose of analyzing the impact of the high school on the student. In the meantime, the teachers' and counselors' perception of the way our high schools are run and the impact of those schools on <u>them</u> are of sufficient value and interest in their own right to be investigated and reported. This working paper fulfills in part, this latter purpose. Further publications on these topics are also planned.

<u>Publication Plans</u>. The publication program for the study involves three levels: working papers, research monographs, and books. The working paper series is designed to provide fairly immediate documentation and distribution of findings to sponsors and colleagues working in related fields.

The next level of publication, the research monograph series, is designed to communicate the scientific findings of the study to a broader professional audience. The research monographs will include much of the information first available in the working paper series, but will do so in a more polished and finished form. Some monographs will be adapted fairly directly from corresponding working papers; others may combine and integrate a number of working papers. It is intended that the research monograph series will eventually provide a complete and fully documented statement of the results of the research.

The third level of publication is expected to be one or more books summarizing and integrating many of the findings reported in the monograph series. It is important to note that this form of publication will not be merely a repetition or summarization of what is already presented in the research monograph series; rather, it is intended that the books based on the study will concentrate more heavily on summary conclusions and policy implications. The books will be, in a sense, secondary material building upon the primary analyses reported in fuller detail in the monographs; they will be more interpretative, less data-laded, and will cite the research monograph series in order to refer intensive readers to the source material.

The three levels of publication described above represent the major outlets contemplated for our findings. Additional means of communication will include occasional doctoral dissertations, journal articles, and papers and symposia presented from time to time. Some findings first published in these forms, especially doctoral dissertations, may eventually be included

in the working paper and/or monograph series.

Working Paper Series. Given its purpose of documenting our work promptly and extensively, the working paper series is not subject to stringent editorial requirements; on the contrary, our primary emphasis is upon getting things written soon after they happen, leaving the more complete and polished treatment for the monograph series. (An example of this process is the first working paper, produced in May of 1967; it was extensively revised and published as our first monograph at the end of 1967.) Our intention is to include a wide range of products in the working paper series, such as description of research design and procedures (Working Paper No. 1), reports of scores and response distributions (Working Papers No. 2 and No. 4), and discussion and interpretation of findings (Working Papers No. 3, No. 5, and other forthcoming working papers).

As noted earlier, the audience for the working paper series includes sponsors and colleagues working in closely related fields. Another very important audience includes our own project personnel. At this writing the project has been in operation for over three years; it is scheduled to continue for another three years, and it may well lead to further studies. It thus becomes important to provide continuity in purpose and knowledge of the project in the face of inevitable changes in staff, and the Working Papers are one of the means of insuring such continuity.

Acknowledgements. Any project of the size and scope of the Youth in Transition study involves the collaborative effort of many people. Thanks are due to many staff members of the Institute for Social Research: the Sampling Section; the Field Section, including field supervisors and interviewers; the Coding Section; and the Computer Services Facility. In particular, we wish to acknowledge the work of our project staff, past and present:

Allison Arscott
Joy Bingham
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Robert Cope
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Joel Raynor
Willard L. Rodgers
Claire Taylor
Ilona Wirtanen

A final work of thanks is due to the many principals, teachers, and counselors who agreed to participate in our study, thereby making this working paper possible.

Jerald Bachman
Robert L. Kahn
Principal Investigators

Design Features of a Nationwide Study of Adolescent Boys and Their High School Environments[1]

Terrence N. Davidson
The University of Michigan

In June of 1965 a longitudinal study of high school age boys was launched by The University of Michigan's Survey Research Center under the sponsorship of the United States Office of Education. The study was to deal with the effects of different high school environments, and the loss of such environments in the case of high school dropouts, on changes taking place in the attitudes, plans, and behaviors of adolescent boys. Thus the study, in the broadest sense, is an exploration of the effects of social environments on adolescent boys.

Perhaps the most important contemporary environment for the boys in our study is the high school. The papers to follow will present some results of our efforts to measure this environment. These efforts are better understood once you have a clear picture of the relationship of this investigation of school environments to the Youth in Transition study as a whole.

It is an assumption of educators, industrial and governmental leaders, and perhaps the adult population at large, that school and work environments differ drastically in their implications for adolescent boys. Yet it can reasonably be asked to what extent differences in behavior between boys in school, at work, or unemployed reflect their different environments, and to what extent the choice of environment (such as dropping out of school or failing to seek work actively) is itself a reflection of already established differences in background, attitudes, and motives. This study addresses itself to both the question of how environments affect adolescent boys and the question of how these boys select themselves into and out of the various environments available to them. To answer these questions, a longitudinal research design is necessitated.

Our design is centered around a national cross-section of about 2200 boys starting tenth grade in 87 public high schools in the Fall of 1966.[2]

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[1]For a complete description of the study, its design and purposes, see Bachman, J. G., Kahn, R. L., Mednick, M. T., Davidson, T. N., and Johnston, L. D. Youth in transition: volume I--Blueprint for a longitudinal study of adolescent boys. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, 1967.

[2]While a national cross-section of schools is in many ways ideally suited

The boys are followed for more than a three year period as shown in Figure 1-1. Since our sample of boys is clustered by school, we were able to secure reports from a number of boys about the same objective environment, thus permitting a more reliable estimate of the true nature of the school environment. While the boys in our study thus provide some information about school environments, the most extensive data about these environments have been collected from the teachers, counselors, head of counseling program, and principal in each school. The present symposium is based on some preliminary analyses of these data.

A stratified random sample of 88 schools was originally sampled from across the United States, of which 81% agreed to participate. Replacements, which were matched for region and school size, were secured for all but one of the non-participating schools. In each school, a number of boys specified by the sampling design, usually around 25, were then invited to participate. Only 3% failed to complete the necessary instruments or refused entirely. Next, some corrective weighting of responses to increase sample accuracy was performed, resulting in a representative national sample of boys who were beginning their tenth-grade of public high school in the United States in the Fall of 1966. Presently, the second wave of data has been collected, and 85% of the Time 1 respondents have again provided response rates, and we feel that little, if any, bias has been introduced into our panel by the initial refusal rates of either schools or boys.

The dimensions of the boys along which we plan to measure change during the study include certain mental health characteristics (or affective states), a number of attitudes and values, several motives, aspects of self-concept, occupational and educational plans, and the frequency of certain important behaviors (such as delinquent acts). Figure 1-2 graphically shows these variables as "Criteria" to be predicted from characteristics of the person, his environments, and the person-environment fit.

Almost all of the criterion variables indicated in this figure were measured in the first two data collections, and most will be remeasured in the data collections to follow. The measuring instruments in the first collection were a private interview of about two

---

[2] to our purposes, it may not include very many truly "outstanding" schools. In a study designed to show what school environments <u>can</u> do, as well as what they typically do, such a defect could be quite serious. To insure a sufficient number of those rare schools that can be termed outstanding, a supplementary (discretionary) sample was chosen. Schools in this discretionary sample were selected by experts in the field to be exceptionally effective along one or more of the following dimensions: academic excellence, organizational innovation, student-faculty relations, community relations, innovation in vocational preparation, and promotion of student mental health. Treatment of both boys and staff in these schools was identical to that of their probability sample counterparts. At present, 14 such schools are participating in the study, but are not part of the probability sample discussed in this and the following papers.

FIGURE 1-1. OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH DESIGN: SCHOOL EFFECTS ON STUDENT GROWTH

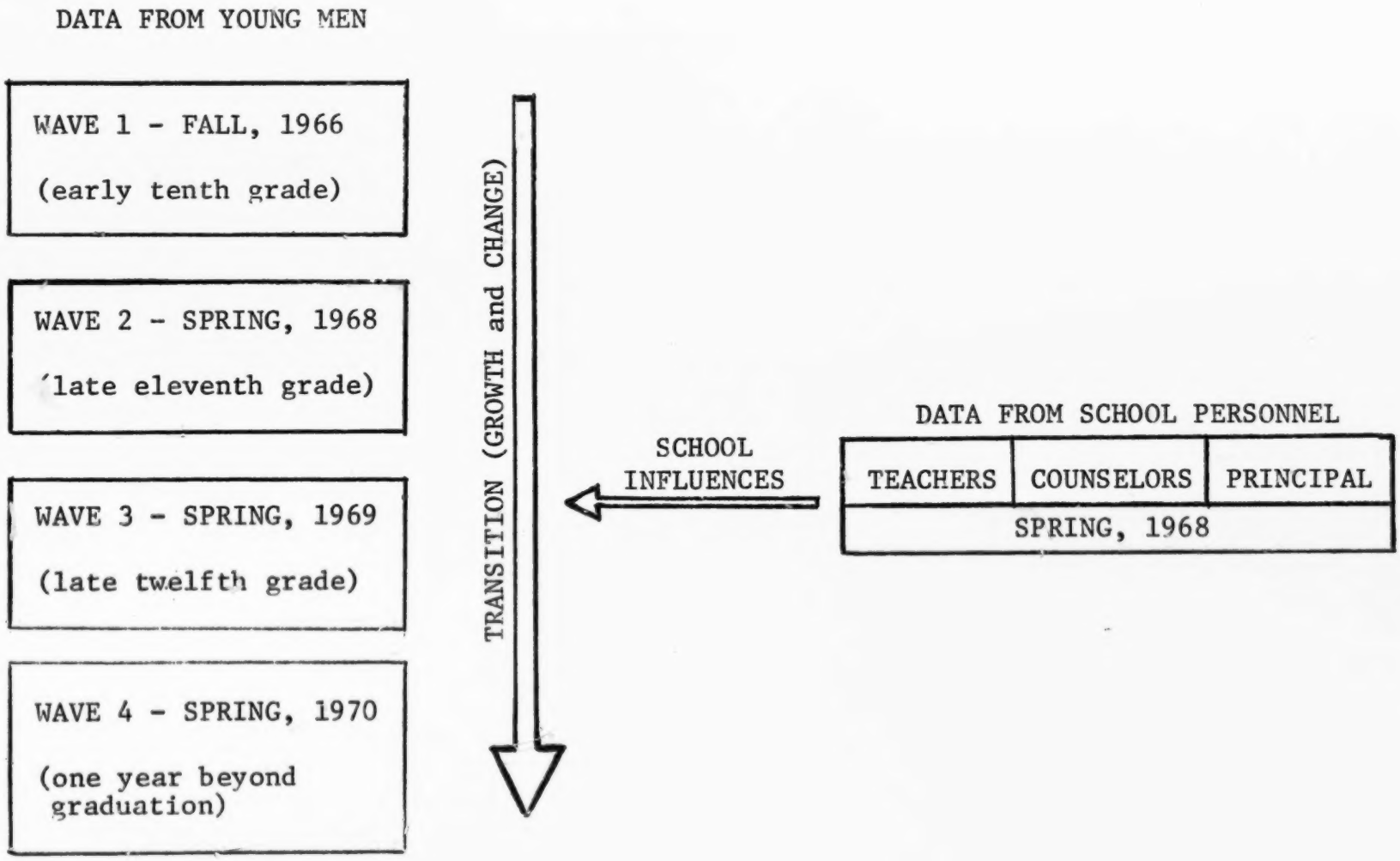
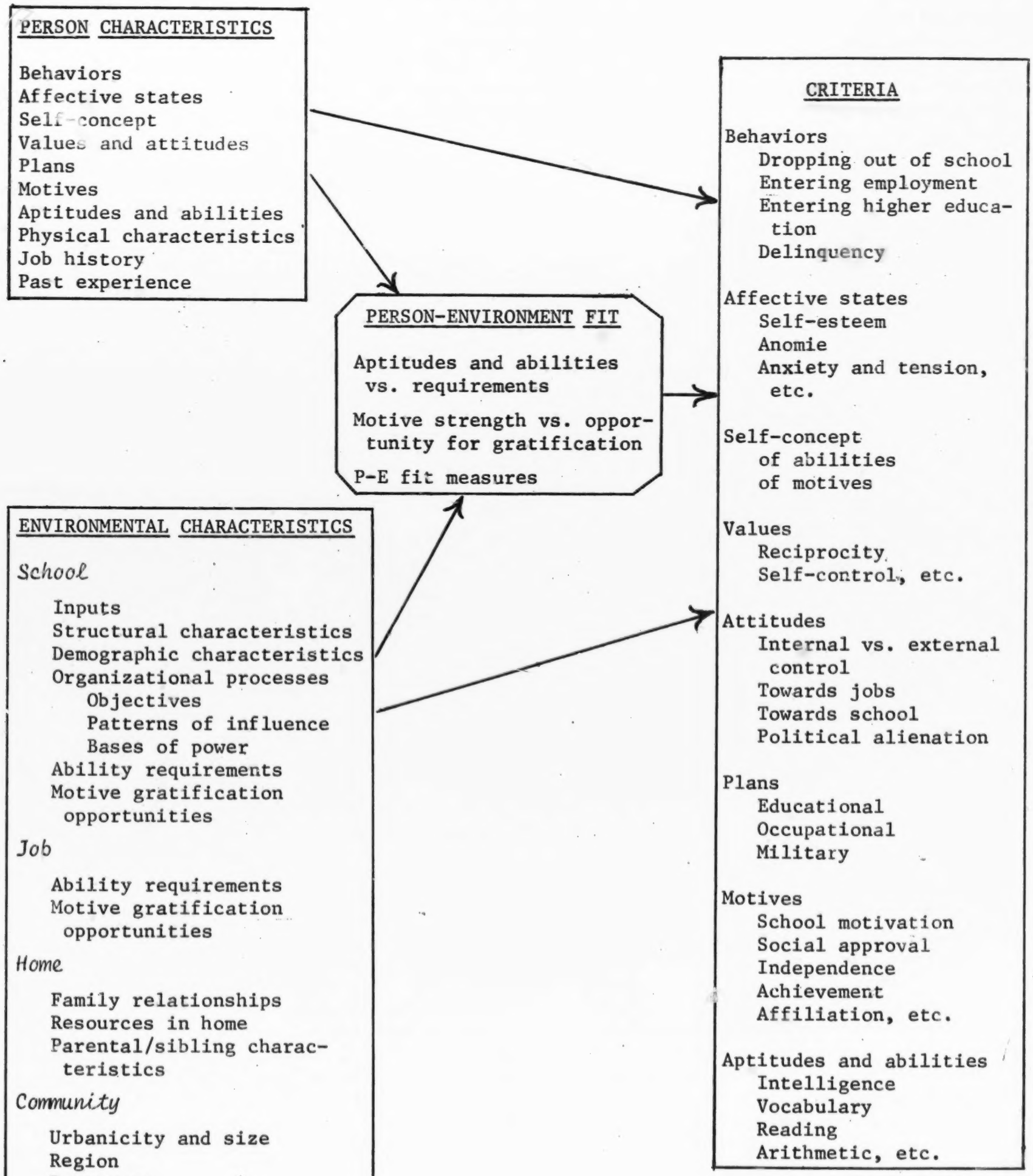


FIGURE 1-2. MAJOR VARIABLE CATEGORIES IN CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



hours in duration, and a test battery and questionnaire, both of which were group-administered to all subjects in a school following their interviews. Both procedures were conducted in the schools by trained Survey Research Center interviewers. The last three data collections are conducted in non-school locations.

Although data from our panel of young men are collected at four separate points across a three and one-half year span, nearly all measures of school characteristics are collected at a single point in time. In this respect, our design treats school organizations as if they were constant during the period of study. Of course, this is an oversimplification, but it helps to bring conceptual and analytic clarity to the overall design. Also, we believe that changes in the schools will be much less pronounced than changes in the boys during the span of the study. Furthermore, we wish to focus on the effects of changes from one environment to another (such as when a boy leaves the school environment and enters a particular work environment); this study is not designed to examine changes in environments during the passage of time.

Concurrent with the second data collection in the Spring of 1968, the study of school personnel was fielded. The principal of each school participating in the Youth in Transition study was informed of our desire to include samples of teachers and counselors in his school, as well as the head of the counseling program and the principal himself. It is noteworthy that every principal granted us permission to invite the participation of his staff in spite of the fact that this represented a request for staff time not originally specified when the first wave of data was collected. Random samples of teachers and all counselors from each school were sent letters of invitation. Included with the letter was a brochure describing the study, a post card (with the respondent's name on it) used to indicate that the respondent had completed and mailed his questionnaire to us, and the questionnaire itself. Because the school number was the only means of identifying a questionnaire, the anonymity of each individual respondent was assured. At the same time, for follow-up purposes, the post card permitted us to make direct, individual contact with non-respondents without violating this anonymity.

After about three weeks, our interviewers placed calls to non-responding teachers and counselors. Questions about the study were answered, and second copies of the instrument were provided when requested. After another several weeks, additional contacts were made with all non-respondents except those who had previously refused. A duplicate copy of the questionnaire was enclosed in this final mailing.

The success of these contact and follow-up procedures might best be summarized as follows: about 40% of the approximately 3000 teachers in the probability sample responded before any follow-up. An additional 23% responded to the phone follow-up, and the final letter resulted in another 6% responding, yielding an overall response rate for probability sample teachers of about 70%

Of the 367 probability sample counselors invited to participate, 87% completed the instruments and are thus included in this phase of the study.

More extensive follow-up procedures were followed for the heads of counseling program and principals. At present, all but 6 of 87 probability school principals have completed and returned their three-part questionnaire, whereas 99% of all schools have returned the counseling program instrument.

We are quite happy with these response rates, especially in light of the fact that the school faculty had not previously been involved in the study. Our prior contact with the principal in securing the involvement of the school when the study of the boys began apparently indicated the legitimacy of our request, and thus worked in our favor. In addition, copies of relevant publications had been sent to the school in the interim, perhaps further demonstrating our intentions to do a thorough job in our research. Finally, the pains taken to guarantee the anonymity of the faculty may have had a positive effect on response rates. In any event, we view the response rates as encouraging, and we feel the data will greatly aid our understanding of the changes taking place in the young men as our study progresses.

Our initial purpose was to select samples of teachers and counselors to represent their respective populations in each school. However, because of the size of our teacher and counselor samples and the stratified random procedures by which they were drawn, we became interested in the possibility of reweighting the samples to approximate national samples of high school teachers and counselors with our data. A series of consultations with the Survey Research Center's Sampling Section led to the tentative introduction of a weighting factor to achieve this purpose. Analyses of the data in both weighted and unweighted form indicated that a better representation of the descriptive characteristics of a national sample of counselors was obtained via the weighted sample. For teachers, however, the refinement in sample precision was very small, too small to warrant the rather extensive investment in weighting. Thus, the sample of teachers obtained through the procedures described earlier is a rather good representative sample of full time teachers in public high schools in continental United States.

The following papers will present more detailed descriptions of some selected variables from our instruments in their presentations. Before proceeding with these presentations, however, perhaps a brief overview of the contents of the instruments would be instructive. Figures 1-3 through 1-6 list the major sections of the teacher, counselor, head of counseling, and principal questionnaires. As you glance at these figures, let me give you a few characteristics of each sample.

The teacher questionnaire was administered to stratified random samples of staff members who were identified as full time teachers at the selected school and teaching at least one class to students in grades 9 through 12. The average number of participating teachers per school is about 24. Estimates based on our pilot study indicate that the questionnaire required about an hour to complete. In schools with more than 40 such teachers, a random sample of 40 was taken. In schools containing less than 40, all such teachers were sampled.

A counselor questionnaire was sent to all staff members in a school who spent 20% or more of their time on guidance and counseling activities. Our estimates are that this instrument took about one-half hour to

FIGURES 1-3 THROUGH 1-6

INSTRUMENT CONTENT IN STUDY OF SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS[1]

FIGURE 1-3. TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

(n = 2087, response rate = 69%)

General information about school
Distribution of influence
Planning, evaluation, and coordination
Evaluation of teaching
Innovation
School objectives
Opportunities for students
Attitudes and feelings
Sources of satisfaction
Background and teaching assignments

FIGURE 1-4. COUNSELOR QUESTIONNAIRE

(n = 318, response rate = 87%)

General information about school
Evaluation of counseling program
School personnel
Time allocation
Student transfers among programs
Background

FIGURE 1-5. COUNSELING PROGRAM QUESTIONNAIRE

(n = 86, response rate = 99%)

Guidance and counseling programs and facilities
  Job placement
  Student follow-up
School testing program
College preparatory selection
Personnel input
Continuing education of counselors

FIGURE 1-6. PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRES

(n = 81, response rate = 93%)

School and community characteristics
Enrollment and attendance
School programs and facilities
Characteristics of school staff
Problem behavior
Title I programs
Organizational structure and processes
Evaluation of teaching performance
Role of the central administration
Background and present role of principal
General information about students
Student government
Curriculum and programs
Teacher organizations
Administrative functions and practices
General information about faculty and staff

[1]Parenthesized figures are based on data from the probability sample schools.

complete.

The head of counseling questionnaire was completed by the counselor designated by the principal as the department head, or if there were no titular head, by the counselor judged to be most experienced or qualified. If the school had no counseling program, the principal completed relevant sections himself. The average time needed to complete this instrument was about one-half hour.

School principals were mailed two questionnaires: one in the Spring of 1967, and the other, a two part instrument, concurrently with the other school staff questionnaires in the Spring of 1968. Each questionnaire required about three-quarters of an hour to complete and large sections were recommended for delegation to other office staff.

As mentioned earlier, the reports to follow are based on some preliminary analyses of data from the teachers, counselors, and principals in the high schools in which our panel of young men were located when the Youth in Transition study began. Ultimately, when the changes along the important dimensions outlined earlier in Figure 1-2 become available, these data will be used to help us understand how various aspects of the school environment affect the changes taking place in adolescent boys. Meanwhile, certain outcomes for school personnel will be treated as criteria themselves. Examples of such variables for teachers are self-esteem and irritability, and for both counselors and teachers, satisfaction with their position and chosen career. The remaining papers will deal with some of these variables in more detail, with particular emphasis on how they relate to characteristics of the schools.

Some Characteristics of Teachers and Organizational Characteristics of High Schools in the Sample

Jerome Johnston

The University of Michigan

INTRODUCTION

Organizational research in industrial settings has emphasized the importance of a large number of variables having to do with interaction within and between various levels of the organizational hierarchy. Specifically, the research has established strong connections between process variables, like the distribution of influence, and productivity in the organization. An overarching hypothesis of our investigation is that some of these same variables are important in the school setting when we conceive of the school as an organization; and that the efficiency and productivity of the school is related to some of these same process variables. In this paper, I would like to present the preliminary findings on three such variables in the teacher data -- namely, teacher influence, teacher perception of school objectives, and teacher evaluation. First, a few general points on the teachers in the study.

Some of the background characteristics of the teachers are summarized in Figure 2-1. There are slightly more males than females. On the average they have taught for 12 years, of which 7.4 years have been spent in their current school. All but 1.2 percent hold Bachelor degrees, and 44.3 percent have Masters degrees or higher.

The teachers indicate a heavy time commitment in their jobs: 35 hours of required time in school, and another 14 hours additional time of school-related work. This adds up to 49 hours per week on the average. Only half of this time -- about 25 hours -- is spent teaching. Another quarter, or 13 hours is spent preparing for classes and correcting papers. The remaining quarter is divided up among a variety of tasks including monitoring study halls, talking with students outside of class, advising on extra-curriculars, staff meetings, and miscellaneous.

INFLUENCE IN THE SCHOOL

Figure 2-2 summarizes one set of influence questions that we asked the teachers. The questions are of the "Actual-Ideal" variety used by Tannenbaum, Kahn, and others in their studies of the distribution of influence in various types of work organizations. The respondents make two responses to the same stem: the first corresponding to how things are, and the second to how they wish things were. Each response is on a five-point Likert scale. The general question presented to the teachers

Figure 2-1: Some Demographic Characteristics of Teachers in our Sample

A. N=2087 Full-time teachers

B. Sex: 56% Male, 44% Female

C. Average number of years full-time teaching experience: 12

D. Average number of years at present school: 7.4

E. Educational background:

1.2%	Less than a B.A.
10.8%	B.A.
43.2%	B.A. + some credit
12.3%	M.A.
31.2%	M.A. + some credit
0.8%	Ph.D.

F. The Teacher's Week: 35 hours required time in school.
14 hours additional on school-related work, at school or at home.
49 hours average/week

G. Time spent in an average week on various activities:

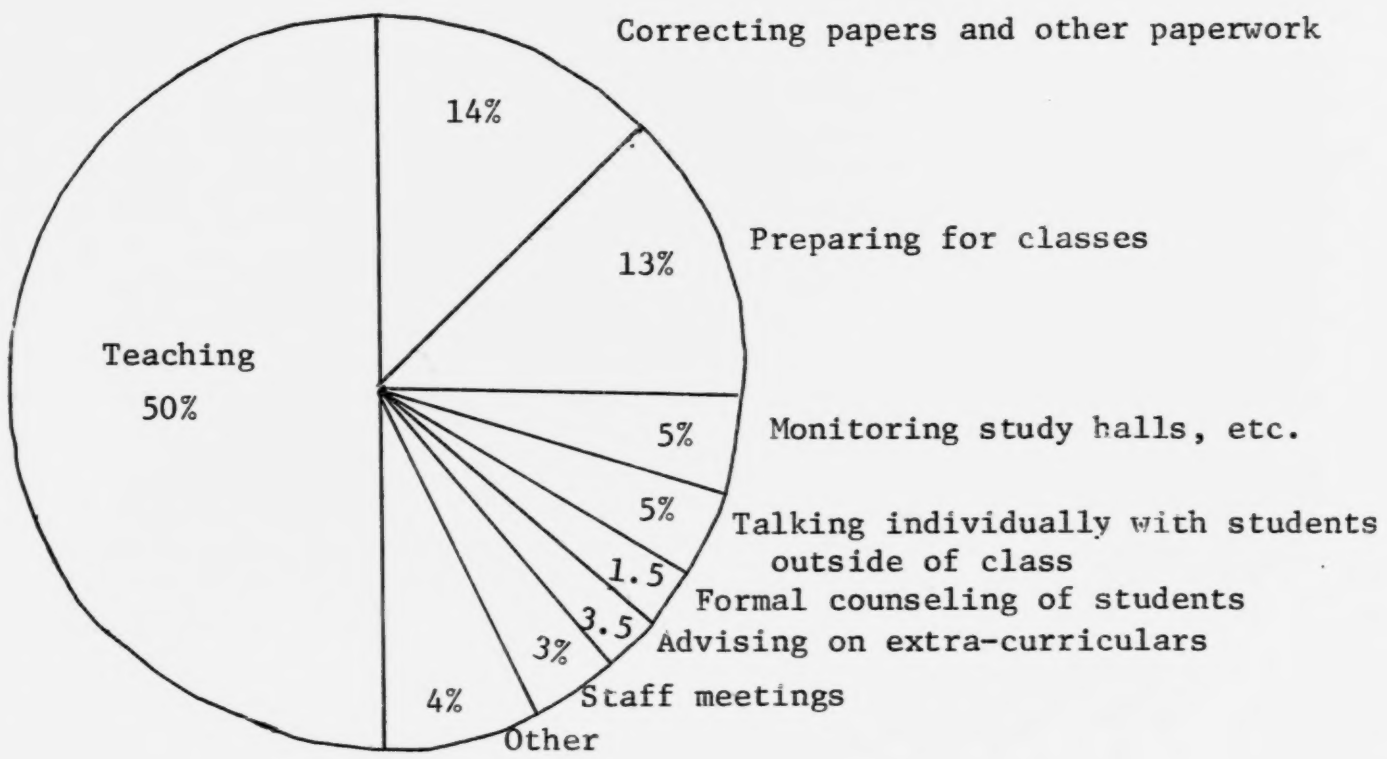
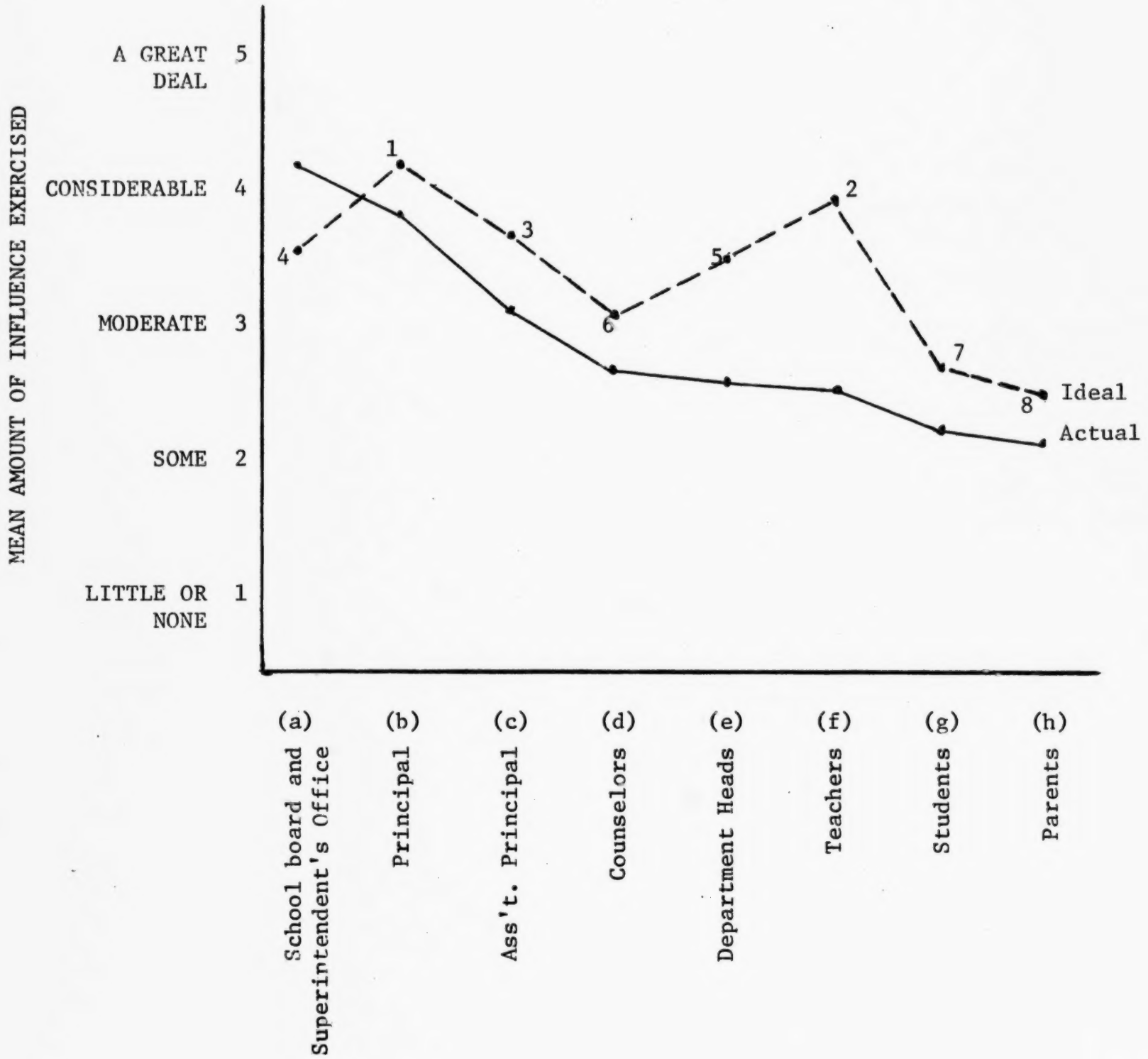


FIGURE 2-2: INFLUENCE IN THE SCHOOL

"For each of the following groups in your school, please rate their actual and ideal influence over the way your school is run.



appears at the top of the chart under the title. "For each of the following groups in your school, please rate their actual and ideal influence over the way your school is run." The horizontal base represents the hierarchy of the school organization, with the superintendent at one end and students and their parents at the other. The vertical axis represents the teachers' perceptions of the degree of influence exercised by persons at the various levels in the school hierarchy. The curves plotted on this graph provide rough descriptions of the distribution of influence in the school, both as the teachers see it, and as they would like to see it.

Look first at the actual amount of influence that the teachers ascribe to the various roles in the school. The range is from "considerable" for the school board, superintendent, and principal, to "some" for the students and their parents. The top three positions in the school organization are connected by a line with a very steep slope, indicating a very hierarchical structure at the top levels. The five remaining groups share about equal amounts of influence, with the students and their parents exercising only slightly less than teachers, department heads and counselors.

When the teachers describe how they would change the influence picture ideally, they increase everybody's influence except that of the school board and superintendent. In general they increase the size of the "influence pie" while at the same time cutting it up quite differently. The numbers on the points of the "Ideal" curve correspond to the new rank-ordering. In their ideal school, teachers would give the principal the greatest amount of influence -- as much as they see being exercised currently by the superintendent and school board. Next they place themselves. At the third level they place four groups with about equal influence: the assistant principal, superintendent, school board, and department chairmen. Next in descending sequence come counselors, students, and their parents. If we were to reorder the groups on the horizontal axis to correspond to the new ordering, and then plot the influence curve, the slope would at no point be as steep as the first part of the "actual" curve. In other words, the teachers would create a more equalitarian organization than currently exists.

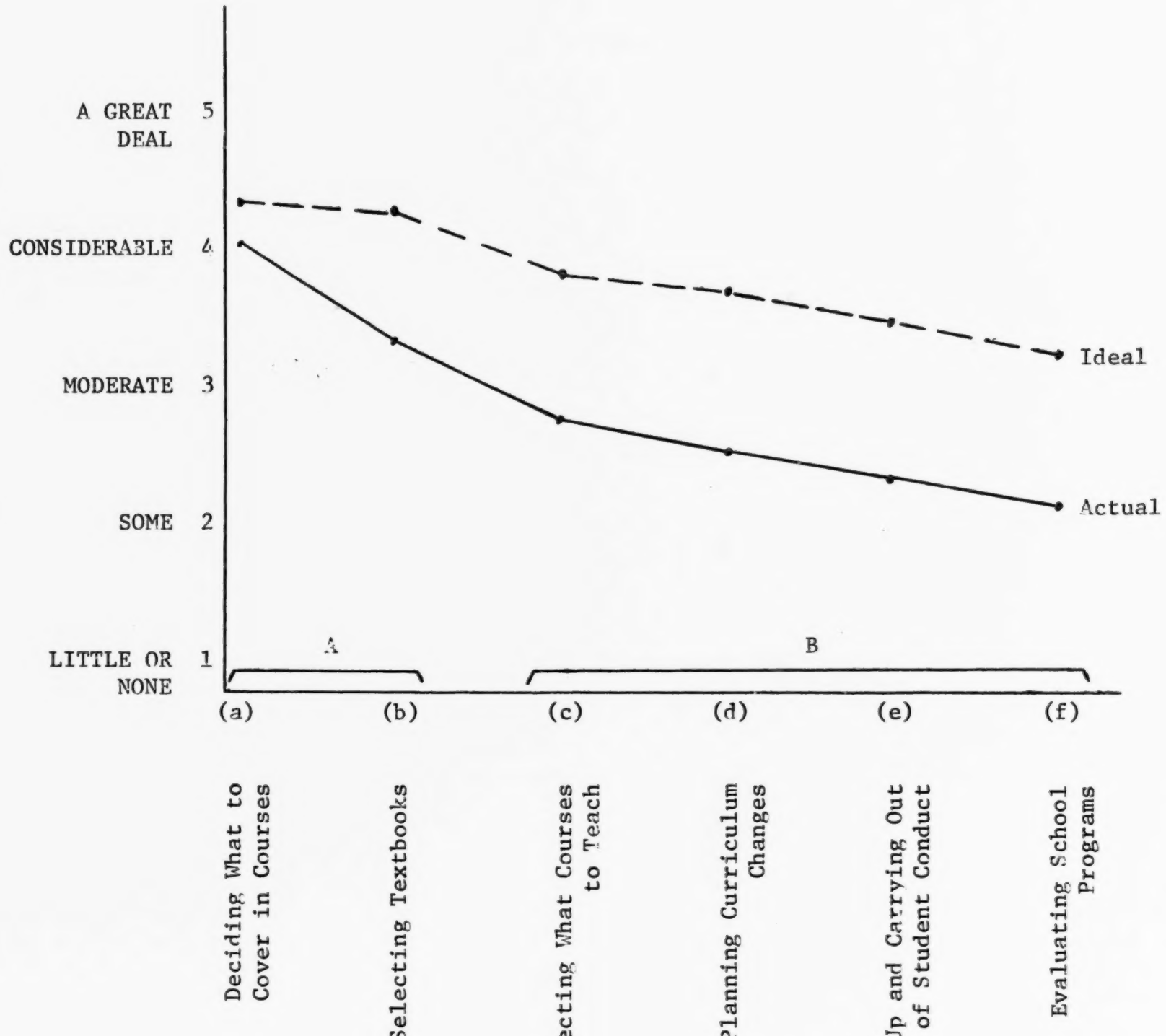
The next chart, Figure 2-3, examines some of the components of teacher influence, both actual and ideal. This graph is to be read in the same way as the previous one; the one difference is that now the horizontal base consists of components of teacher influence. The general question that was asked the teachers appears at the top of the page. "Now indicate the amount of <u>your own</u> actual influence in each of the following decisions and how much you feel you should have ideally."

The six components of influence have been arranged into two groups. The first two -- labelled group "A" on the horizontal axis -- have to do directly with an individual teacher's classroom. The second group -- labelled "B" -- is all one step removed from the classroom and gets into the area of running the school as an organization composed of many classrooms and educational programs.

Looking at the teachers' responses to the situation as it exists currently, it is apparent that they perceive themselves as having "considerable influence" over the first group of specifically classroom activities. However, their influence in decisions having to do with the school organization as a whole is uniformly less than "moderate."

FIGURE 2-3: SOME COMPONENTS OF TEACHER INFLUENCE

"Now indicate the amount of <u>your</u> <u>own</u> actual influence in each of the following decisions and how much you feel you should have ideally."



As the previous chart on the distribution of influence showed, the teachers would like to increase their overall influence. This second chart indicates they would like to have much more influence in decisions having to do with the school program as a whole. Keeping in mind that they also would like to keep the principal's influence greater than their own, we might infer that they would like a greater share in the decision-making having to do with school policy and educational programs.

Descriptively the data may be interesting, but what of the question of validity? Is there agreement within schools about the reality reported to exist there? For the Actual-Ideal type of question there should be between-school differences for the Actual ratings, which are attempting to measure the reality, but not for the Ideal questions, which should be more teacher-specific than school-specific. The method we are using to investigate this issue is a one-way analysis of variance, with the school as the variable of classification and specific items in the questionnaire as dependent variables. With survey-type data based on an N of 2000, the F-statistic can be misleading. However, an associated statistic which has been very helpful is eta-squared (η^2), or the proportion of the total variance accounted for by the variable of classification. When the classificatory variable is the school, η^2 is interpreted as follows: η^2 is the proportion of the total variance accounted for by the differences in school means. On the influence items the mean η^2 for Actual influence is 0.15, while that for Ideal influence is 0.09. The greater proportion of variance accounted for by the ratings on Actual influence gives us some assurance that the items are indeed being responded to in a similar way within each school.

Another way in which this statistic is helpful is in picking out those variables which show the greatest between-school differences, and therefore are most likely to be the characteristics which will discriminate among the environments of the different schools in our sample. Three positions in the school hierarchy (on the influence curve given in Figure 2-2) stand out as likely variables of interest here: the principal (η^2=.25), the assistant principal (η^2=.19) and department heads (η^2 .17).

SCHOOL OBJECTIVES

The next part of the data I would like to present is on school objectives. In Table 2-1 you will find a copy of the page on school objectives taken from the questionnaire. You will note that -- as in the influence section -- there are two parallel columns, one in which the teacher indicates the apparent importance of each objective to the administration, the other in which he indicates the importance he thinks they should be given. The Likert scales have been blanked out and replaced by the rank order of the objectives and the η^2-statistic associated with the mean ratings for that objective.

In Figure 2-4 you will find a graph of the results. The objectives have been ordered along the horizontal axis -- from high to low -- according to the apparent importance teachers said the objectives had for the administration. The position of each on the vertical axis corresponds to its mean importance.

Table 2-1: Teacher Rating of School Objectives

G. SCHOOL OBJECTIVES

Below are listed several possible long-term objectives that might be held by a high school. We would like you to make two ratings of each objective:

(A) how much importance do you think the administrators in your school (principal, assistant principal, etc.) attach to each of the following objectives for your school? Make your judgment based on what you think your administrators are actually trying to do; and

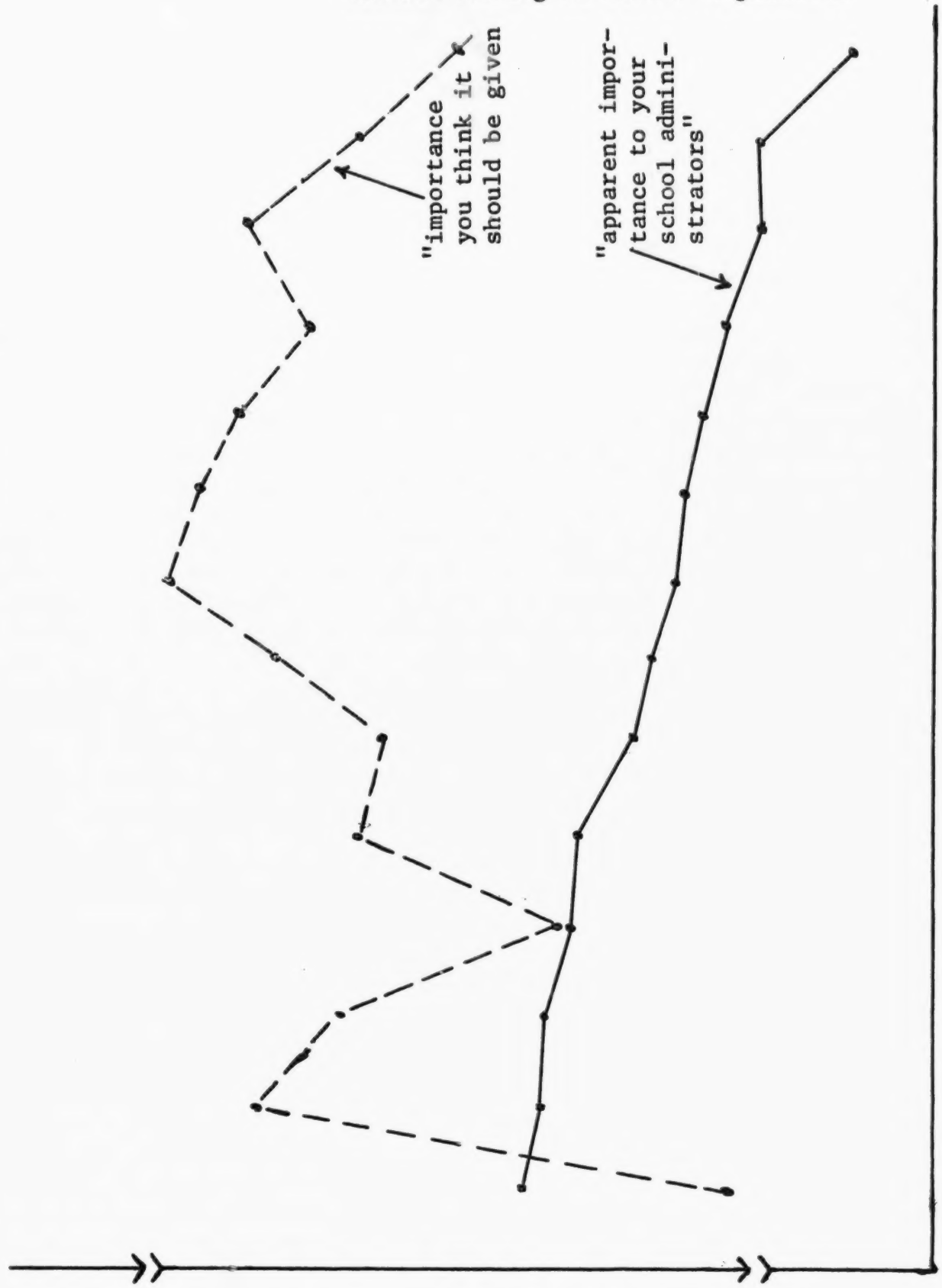
(B) how much importance do you think should be attached to each objective in your high school?

	(A) APPARENT IMPORTANCE TO YOUR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS		(B) IMPORTANCE YOU THINK SHOULD BE GIVEN	
	Rank Order	η^2	Rank Order	η^2
1. Transmitting a thorough knowledge of subject matter	2	.13	3	.08
2. Preparing students to assume the family roles of spouse and parent	14	.11	12	.07
3. Preventing drop-outs	6	.15	10	.10
4. Developing students' interests in political processes and social issues .	13	.12	11	.05
5. Maintaining order and quiet in the school	3	.19	8	.08
6. Increasing students' motivation and desire to learn	9	.15	1	.06
7. Improving students' social and psychological adjustment	11	.13	7	.06
8. Developing students' concern for others	12	.13	5	.06
9. Developing outstanding athletes and athletic teams	1	.23	14	.08
10. Increasing student understanding of occupational opportunities and of the necessary skills, training, and interests	7	.15	6	.06
11. Responding to the individual academic needs of students	10	.11	4	.05
12. Getting a high proportion of students into college	4	.22	13	.11
13. Achieving outstanding academic performance	5	.19	9	.10
14. Giving non-college-bound students vocational skills	8	.22	2	.06
	Mean η^2:	.16	Mean η^2:	.07

Low 1 Moderate 2 High 3 Very High 4 Extremely High 5

FIGURE 2-4:

Teacher Rating of School Objectives


"importance you think it should be given
"apparent importance to your school administrators"
extremely high importance 5
VERY HIGH IMPORTANCE 4
HIGH IMPORTANCE 3
low importance 1

(2) prepare for spouse and parent role

(4) interest in polit. process & soc issu

(8) develop concern fo others

(7) improve soc/psych adjustment

(11) respond to indiv. acad. needs

(14) voc. skills non-college bound

(6) increase motiv. to learn

(10) occup. opportunit and req. voc. ski

(3) prevent drop-outs

(13) outstanding acad. performance

(12) high prop. into college

(5) order and quiet

(1) subject matter

(9) athletic teams

First, let's look at the objectives that the teachers think are of greatest importance to administrators. The five most important -- in abbreviated form -- are athletic teams, subject matter, order and quiet, getting a high proportion of students into college, and achieving outstanding academic performance. The four objectives perceived to be least important for administrators might be labelled "social development concerns": improve students' social and psychological adjustment, develop a concern for others, develop an interest in political processes and social issues, and prepare for the family roles of spouse and parent. While least important, they are still in the range of moderate to high importance.

One way of contrasting the objectives that are deemed important to the administrators with those important to the teachers is to characterize two schools, one described by the top-ranked objectives for administrators; the other by the equivalent set for teachers. In the teachers' view, the administrators are most concerned with "system objectives." With the exception of athletics, each of the five top-ranked objectives is concerned with making the school -- in Stanton Wheeler's term -- an efficient "people processor." The main task in this processing is the mastery of subject matter in an atmosphere of order and quiet. The marks of organizational success are outstanding academic performance and its concomitant, getting a high proportion of students into college. The role of athletics in this process is unclear. At minimum it is an activity highly regarded by the community and as such perhaps is emphasized by administrators to maintain community support for the school, or at least fend off public criticism.

Turning to the teachers, one is struck most by the lack of similarity between the two sets of ratings. Ordering the objectives according to their perceived importance to administrators produces a smooth descending curve for the administrators, but no clear trend for the teachers. The graph itself is somewhat misleading, in that it suggests a stronger linear relationship than actually exists. It makes it appear that there are portions of the curve that are similar in trend. However, a product-moment correlation of the 14 pairs of mean ratings is moderately negative, $r = -0.29$. By comparison, look at Figure 2-2. The two curves in this figure do not look entirely unlike the other figure, yet the correlation of the mean ratings is highly positive, $r = 0.65$.

One generalization that can be made is that, with two exceptions, all the objectives have a greater valence for the teachers than for the administrators; i.e., the teachers think that the objectives should all be given greater emphasis than they are currently. The one notable exception is athletics, where the teachers are in strong disagreement with the administration. The ordering of objectives for teachers suggests a completely different picture of the school for them than they think the administrators have. Look at the top curve on Figure 2-4 of your handout. The top seven objectives have fairly equal means separated by several points from the next group of objectives. There is only one item that is in the top group for both administrators and teachers: this is transmitting a thorough knowledge of subject matter. Trying to characterize the school described by the teachers, I would say that it is one oriented to the everyday problems of the classroom teacher. The most important objectives have to do with coping with a wide variety of student abilities and interests in a classroom that has a single focus: transmitting a

thorough knowledge of subject matter. In the teachers' school heavier emphasis would be placed on both helping the student master the subject matter and, at the same time, training him for a vocational role in the world of work. The rationale for this different orientation is unclear. On the one hand it could represent a sincere desire to make the school a more humanistic and practically oriented "people processor," concerned as much with helping students adapt to their adult roles as it is with teaching them traditional subject matter. On the other hand, this could reflect a simple reaction to the frustrations of trying to teach academic subjects to a population in which large numbers are simply uninterested in this pursuit.

Again, it is worth looking at the η^2-statistic as an indication of whether or not the measure is picking up between-school differences. At the bottom of Table 2-1 is the mean η^2 for each column. A comparison of these two figures gives adequate assurance that the two measures on the same objective are picking up different things, and that the administrators' column is accounting for much greater between-school differences.

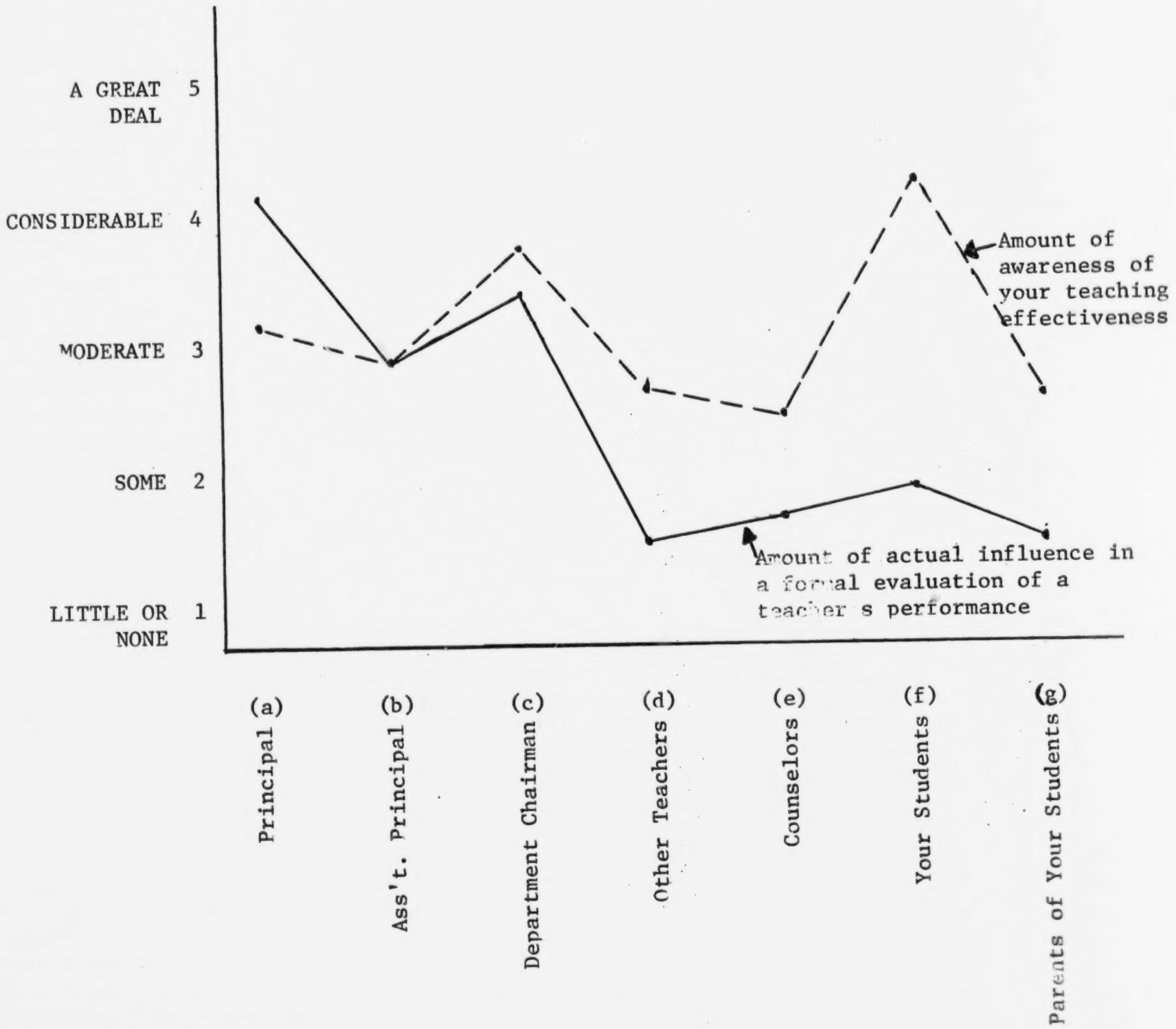
Anyone concerned about possible reasons for the discrepancies between what teachers see as the existing priorities and what they would like to have ideally, might be interested in the responses to two other items in the questionnaire. These have to do with planning and coordination. The teachers were asked to indicate the number of faculty or committee meetings that they had attended in the past two years at which serious consideration had been given to either clarification of goals for particular programs of study or clarification of the school's goals. For the former, there had been an average of 4.32 meetings in two years. For clarification of the school's goals, the average was 3.72 meetings. It is doubtful in my mind that any greater agreement could be reached between teachers and administrators without having many more meetings devoted to a sharing of perspectives on school goals.

EVALUATION

The third area I would like to describe is that of teacher evaluation. Two aspects of evaluation were of special concern to us. One was to find out what factors were important in the evaluation process -- both formal and informal. The other was to compare two dimensions: one, the amount of influence people in different roles have in evaluation; second, the teachers' estimate of the same people's awareness of how effective they are as teachers.

In Figure 2-5 you will find a chart comparing "awareness" with "influence." The underlying continuum is not the same for the two dimensions, though they are plotted on the same graph. But it is helpful for illustrative purposes to plot them this way. In the questionnaire the scales for the two dimensions were labelled similarly -- five points, ranging from "little or none" to "a great deal." Look first at the dimension "amount of influence in a formal evaluation of a teacher's performance." This is the lower of the two curves. You will notice that there are three distinct groups. There is the principal with "considerable" influence; the assistant principal and department chairman with "moderate" influence; and all the rest of the people in the school with "some" to "little"

FIGURE 2-5: EVALUATION: AWARENESS OF TEACHER'S EFFECTIVENESS COMPARED WITH INFLUENCE IN THE EVALUATION PROCESS



influence. On the other dimension, "amount of awareness of your teaching effectiveness," there are three groupings again. However, the group perceived to have the greatest awareness is the teachers' students; and they are rated as having "considerable" awareness. The second most aware or knowledgeable is the department chairman. The third group contains all of the rest of the people in the school and are considered by the teachers to have "moderate" awareness. Within this last group, the parents of students are rated only slightly less aware than the principal.

We attempted to ascertain what the teachers perceived to be the criteria on which their teaching performance was evaluated. In Figure 2-6 you will find a chart with the rank order and value ascribed by the teachers to each of these criteria. The breaks along the vertical axis suggest four groups. The top group -- ranging from moderate to considerable importance -- emphasizes control, good relations with the students, and bureaucratic efficiency. In the second group there are two items which relate to outcomes in students: student improvement in mastery of subject matter, and increasing students' desire to learn. It is as though the first order of importance is given to keeping the system functioning, regardless of outcomes in students; and only then turning to the educative task of transmitting subject matter. Interestingly, the teachers consider being liked by one's superior as equal in importance to the educative criteria.

Another question to be asked is how the evaluation is used: is it used only for determining the teacher competency, or is it also a source of feedback to teachers, indicating the areas of greatest strength and weakness? For the teachers in our study, 70 percent are in schools where a formal evaluation is made of teaching performance. Sixty-three percent have been evaluated in the school in which they are currently teaching; and for these it had occurred on the average, 1 3/4 times in the past 12 months. When asked whether or not the evaluation had helped them improve their teaching performance, the mean response was only "some," or 2.22 on a five-point scale. The other item asked the teachers to indicate which groups in the school, either knowingly or unknowingly, help them to improve their teaching. The students receive a mean rating of 4, indicating that this group provides "considerable" help. But the administrators, the ones with the most influence in the evaluation procedure, are rated as providing only "moderate" help (2.92 on a five-point scale).

SUMMARY

The teachers perceive the actual influence picture in the schools to be very hierarchical with those at the top exercising most of the power. Teacher influence is only moderate and is limited to the classroom. Teachers would like to increase the influence of everybody in the school, except the school board. They would give themselves and the principal the most power but would make the school in general less hierarchical.

In the area of school objectives, the teachers see the administrators being concerned with system objectives and less concerned than teachers with broad student development concerns.

The individuals most influential in the evaluation of teacher performance are the principal, assistant principal, and department chairman. Yet these are not the individuals identified by teachers as being most aware of the teachers' performance. The criteria for evaluation are: first, system variables like keeping things running smoothly, and second, educative criteria like student achievement and motivation.

FIGURE 2-6:

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION

CONSIDERABLE IMPORTANCE 4

____1. Keeping students quiet and orderly *

____2. Rapport with students
____3. Punctuality in handling administrative details

____4. Student improvement in mastery of the subject *
____5. Style of classroom presentation
____6. How well one is liked by a superior
____7. Increasing students' desire to learn *

MODERATE IMPORTANCE 3

____8. Work done in student extracurriculars

____9. Innovativeness
____10. Keeping room and bulletin boards neat
____11. Helpfulness to individual students in personal matters *

Correlates of Job and Career Satisfaction for the American High School Teacher

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INTRODUCTION

As has been previously indicated, the primary purpose of gathering information from teachers is to provide data about school environments which will help to explain why different schools affect their students in different ways. However, we have measured a number of teacher variables which we believe to be of considerable value in their own right, since they are important to the teacher as an individual. These are his satisfaction with his position, his satisfaction with his choice of teaching as a career, his level of irritability, and his level of self-esteem.

This paper will present the results of some early analyses aimed at determining how background characteristics of the teacher and certain aspects of his role relate to his satisfaction with his present position and his satisfaction with his career. Although it was our original purpose to present results dealing with self-esteem and irritability, our findings in these areas are thus far too preliminary to warrant discussion here.

THE FIRST APPROACH

The effects of teacher role characteristics will be examined in two ways. The first is based on asking the respondent himself to judge the relationship between a role characteristic and his job satisfaction. Table 3-1 displays a page from the Teacher Questionnaire in which respondents were, in fact, asked to differentially assess the amounts of satisfaction and dissatisfaction they derive from fifteen aspects of their present position.[1] These particular job dimensions were chosen because we expected them to be some of the most salient features of a teacher's job in terms of their impact on his satisfaction.

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[1]Two dimensions were used instead of one, based on the hypothesis put forth by Herzberg (1959) that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite ends of a continuum. The fact that the average product-moment correlation between responses on the satisfaction and dissatisfaction scales taken across all job dimensions is only -.56 would tend to support that hypothesis. However, I would argue that a person can give an overall assessment of his net satisfaction or dissatisfaction on a single scale as we have used to measure overall job satisfaction (presented later in this paper). The net, or difference value, however, does not indicate much about the magnitude of the subtrahend or minuend (the amount of satisfaction and dissatisfaction).

Table 3-1

Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

The same person or circumstance may be a source of both satisfaction and of dissatisfaction· for example, you may like a person, but you may also be frustrated by some of his behaviors. For each of the following aspects of your present job we would like you to make two ratings:

(A) how much <u>satisfaction</u> you derive from it; and

(B) how much <u>dissatisfaction</u> you derive from this same aspect.

	(A) How much SATISFACTION do you derive from this		(B) How much DISSATISFACTION do you derive from this	
NONE 1 A LITTLE 2 SOME 3 A GREAT DEAL 4				
	MEAN	ETA-SQUARED	MEAN	ETA-SQUARED
• The way your school <u>system</u> is run	2.80	.18	2.86	.14
• The way your particular school is run	2.94	.21	2.72	.16
• The way your principal handles his job	2.98	.28	2.47	.20
• The congeniality of the teachers	3.27	.08	2.07	.08
• The opportunities you have to work collaboratively with other teachers	2.83	.08	2.15	.06
• The general behavior of students in your school	3.02	.14	2.69	.13
• The pay scale in your school	2.95	.18	2.52	.18
• The courses you have been assigned	3.59	.06	1.84	.07
• The students you have been assigned	3.39	.06	2.19	.06
• The way your performance is evaluated	2.77	.09	2.17	.07
• Your chances for advancement or promotion	2.46	.08	2.21	.06
• The objectives toward which your school's administration seems to be working	2.74	.15	2.46	.13
• The opportunity your job provides to <u>use</u> your present knowledge and skills	3.39	.06	2.00	.06
• The opportunity your job provides to <u>acquire</u> new knowledge and skills	2.91	.08	2.14	.06
• The amount of freedom you have to carry out your own ideas	3.47	.08	1.84	.07

The mean satisfaction and dissatisfaction ratings for each job characteristic are jointly displayed in Table 3-2, each comprising one axis of the graph. Perhaps the most striking feature of this graph is that with one exception, all of these aspects of the teaching position are sources of greater satisfaction than of dissatisfaction on the average (i.e. lie above 45° line). The one rather interesting exception is "the way the school system is run," which may indicate that the functioning of the school system is seldom noticed by teachers except when it is adversely affecting them. (Such a variable would be described in Herzberg's terminology as a "hygiene" factor.)

Toward the upper left hand side of this graph, you will notice a cluster of variables which were reported to be the five greatest sources of satisfaction and among the lowest sources of dissatisfaction. Four of them are enclosed in a dotted line to indicate that they are all more or less aspects of the individual teacher's task assignment in the school, as it is traditionally defined. Three of the four appear to overlap somewhat, judging from their intercorrelations. Satisfaction with the opportunity to use one's skills correlates quite strongly with the satisfaction derived from the particular students and courses a teacher is assigned ($r = .46, .40$ respectively), suggesting that course and student assignments substantially affect whether a teacher feels he has a chance to use his special skills and knowledge. This variable of skill utilization will be returned to later.

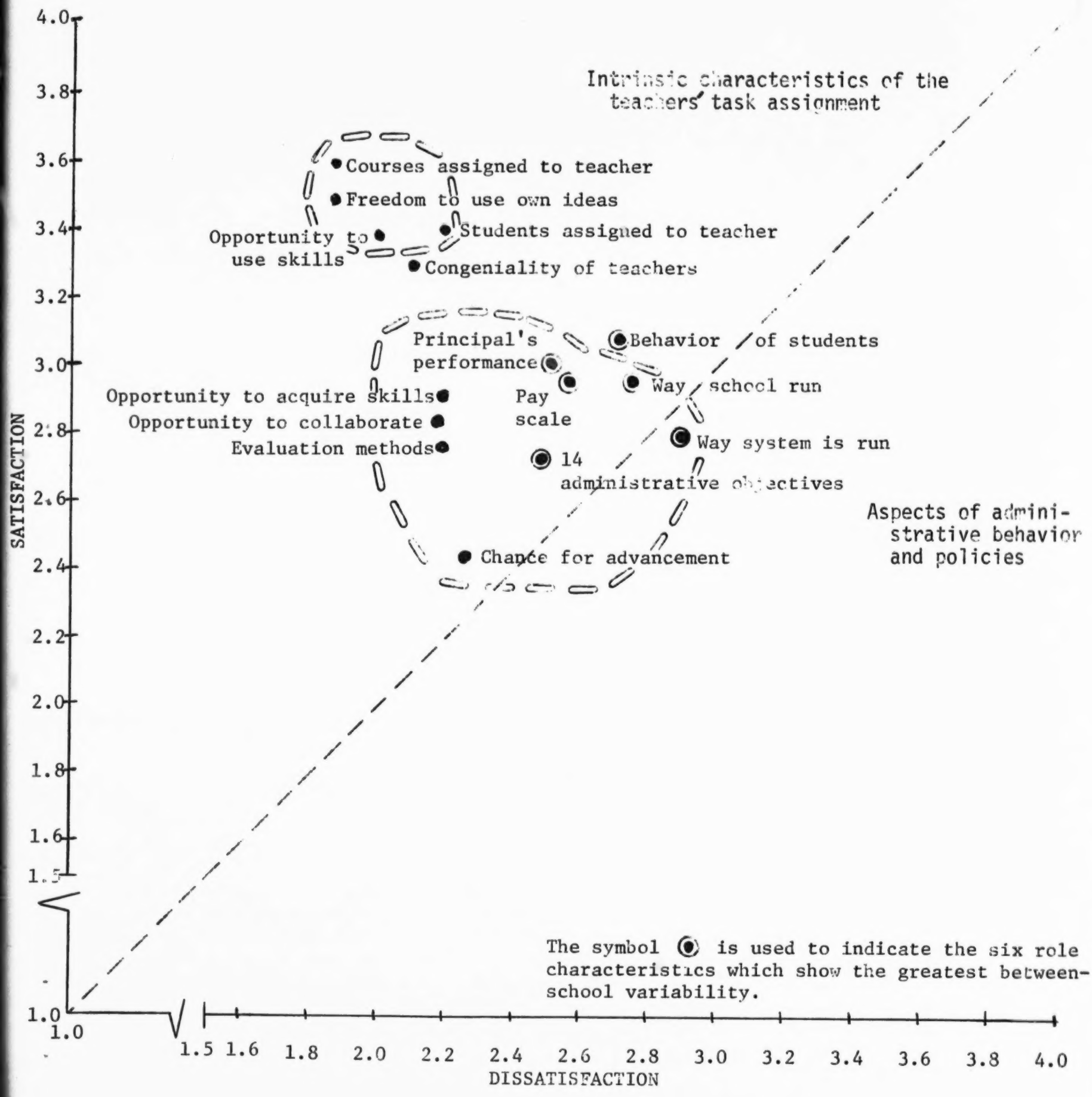
The remainder of the job dimensions displayed in Table 3-2 are more balanced in their contribution to satisfaction and dissatisfaction than the cluster just discussed. The behavior of students in the school is one. The rest are designated as a cluster because they relate to administrative behavior or administrative policies or special programs which would normally have to be created by administrators. As you can see, most of the variables which contribute heavily to teacher dissatisfaction are, in fact, related to the way the school and school system are administered. Using the eta-squared statistic to determine which of all fifteen job characteristics show the most variability from school to school, we find that the six characteristics which vary the most are also the six greatest sources of dissatisfaction. Five of the six are job characteristics related to administration. Thus it seems that most of the important sources of dissatisfaction are aspects of the job which in fact, differ from school to school.

There are two other findings in Table 3-2 which I would like to discuss briefly; one relating to the opportunity teachers have to collaborate and the other relating to their chances for advancement. The average teacher in our sample visited another teacher's classroom only six times a year for the purpose of observing or helping, and this figure includes team teaching in a limited number of schools. It becomes three times a year when we exclude team teaching. Therefore, the fact that the amount of opportunity teachers have to collaborate was not rated as a greater source of dissatisfaction than it was suggests that when opportunities to collaborate are not generally available (and our data suggest that they were not), they are not missed.

Finally I want to note that the job dimension which showed up as least salient was the teacher's chance for advancement and promotion. However, it also had the highest standard deviation on both its satis-

Table 3-2

Mean Rating of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction
for Fifteen Aspects of Teaching Position



faction and dissatisfaction ratings (S.D. is 1.06 and 1.07, respectively), suggesting that there are substantial individual differences in its salience.

AN ALTERNATE APPROACH

So far, we have examined the effects of role and school characteristics by asking the teacher directly how much satisfaction and dissatisfaction he received from each. An alternative method is to get a measure of one's overall satisfaction and also to get separate descriptive measures of various aspects of his job; then to see how these measures relate. The remainder of this paper will deal with this type of analysis.

There are three general measures of satisfaction I would like to consider in this manner. Table 3-3 presents the question comprising each one, along with a spread of the answers provided by our teacher sample. The initial two questions are measures of one's satisfaction with his present job -- the first simply asks the respondent how satisfied or dissatisfied he is, taking all the things into consideration. The second tries to quantify satisfaction using a common denominator other than the subjective feeling of satisfaction -- namely salary. The respondent is told: "Think of the high school in which you would most like to be teaching, if you were not teaching in your present school. Suppose you were offered a position in that school similar to your present one. Which of the following would be the lowest salary offer which would induce you to leave your present position to accept the new one?" Only one quarter of the teachers indicate that they would be willing to make such a move without some pay increase, suggesting that teachers on the average are pretty satisfied with the school at which they are presently working. The distribution of responses to the first question also appears to support that hypothesis.

The third variable in Table 3-3, satisfaction with teaching as a career, is again based on a hypothetical decision; namely, would the respondent enter teaching if he had his career choice to make over again. About eighty percent say they probably or definitely would, indicating that high school teachers are, on the average, also quite satisfied with their career choice. There remains enough variation in job satisfaction and career satisfaction, however, to give merit to the question of what causes teachers to be more or less satisfied on these dimensions. I have looked to several background characteristics and a number of role characteristics for some tentative answers to that question.

To begin with, the relationships of four background characteristics to satisfaction were examined. Product-moment correlations presented in Table 3-4 show that the educational level of the teacher has a negligible relationship to any of our measures of satisfaction. Years of experience and number of years at that school show a mild correlation with the two measures of satisfaction with position -- a fact which might be explained by the selective exit from the school of dissatisfied teachers, but which could also result from such factors as the increase in personal influence which comes with seniority in the school. Career satisfaction, however, does not change with years of experience.

Table 3-3

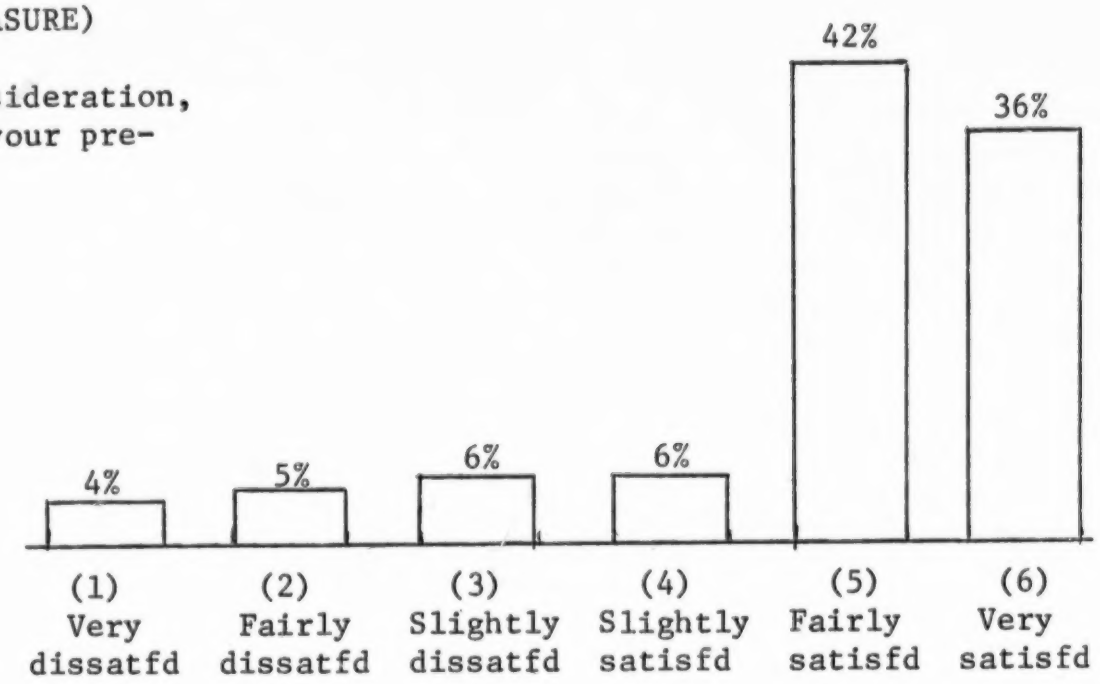
Description of Teacher Satisfaction Variables

JOB SATISFACTION (GENERAL MEASURE)

"Taking all things into consideration, how satisfied are you with your present teaching position?"

MEAN = 4.85

S.D. = 1.35

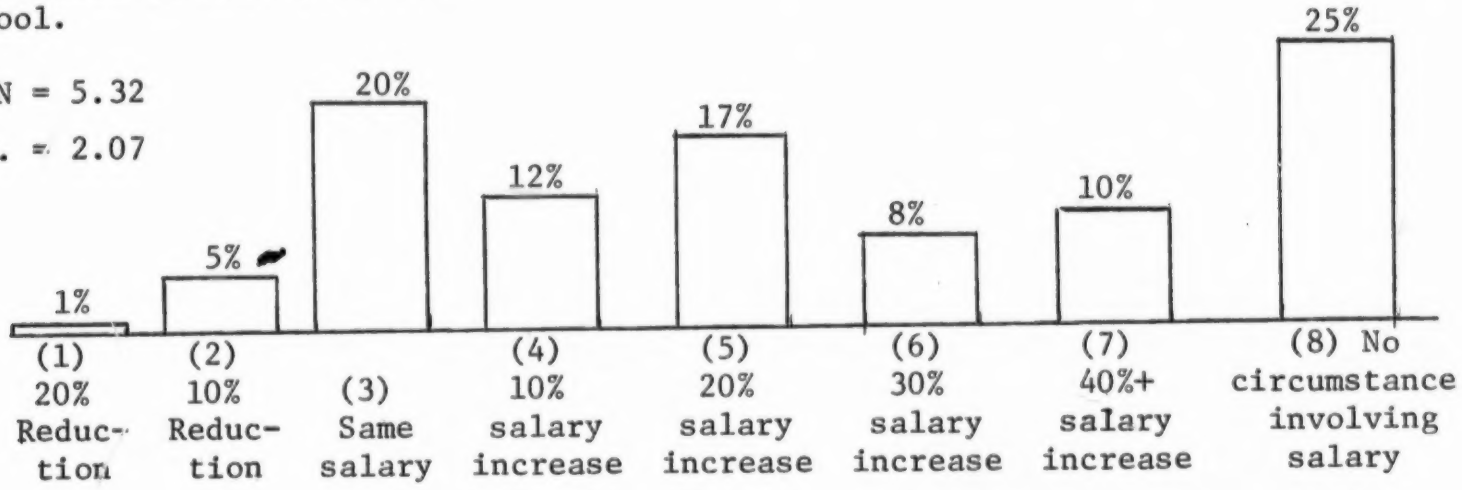


JOB SATISFACTION (DOLLAR MEASURE)

Lowest salary offer which would induce teacher to leave present school for similar position in most preferred other school.

MEAN = 5.32

S.D. = 2.07



CAREER SATISFACTION

"If you had it to do over again, would you enter teaching?"

MEAN = 4.15

S.D. = 1.02

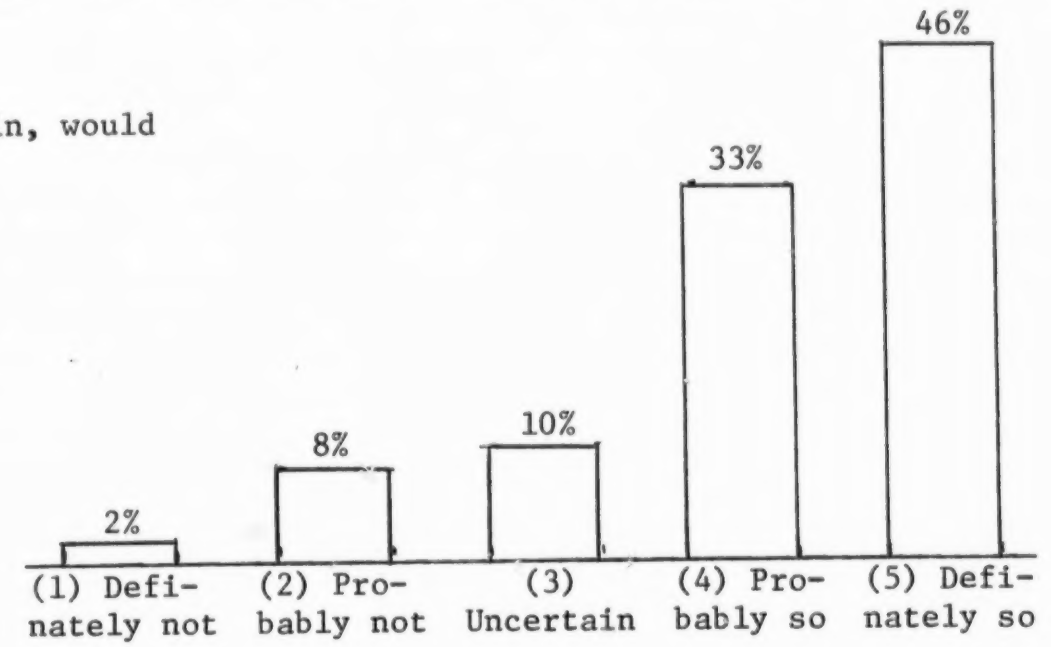


Table 3-4

Background Characteristics Related to

Teacher Satisfaction

	PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS:		
	Job Satisfaction (General)	Job Satisfaction (Dollar)	Career Satisfaction
Education Level	.02	.03	.02
Years of Experience	.12	.17	.03
Years at that School	.11	.14	.03

The relationship of one other personal characteristic was examined in relation to satisfaction -- the sex of the teacher. From earlier work by Ziegler (1966), we would expect males to have lower satisfaction with their career of teaching and, as our results in Table 3-5 indicate, found males to be about one-third of a standard deviation below females on this dimension. Males also showed lower satisfaction with their current position using our "dollar measure" but a less substantial difference emerged using the "general measure" of satisfaction with the position.

In addition to these background characteristics, a number of role characteristics were related to teacher satisfaction. Two of these have to do with structural features of the organization: specifically, whether or not the respondent is a department chairman and whether his department has a chairman. Neither of these role characteristics showed any substantial relationships with our satisfaction measures. This fact is somewhat surprising but perhaps is consistent with our earlier finding that the chance for promotion and advancement is not a very salient dimension for teacher satisfaction, on the average.

I would like now to turn to the role characteristics presented in Table 3-6. They have been placed into logical groupings, most of them characterizing the nature of the teacher's interpersonal relationships. Certain general features about Table 3-6 should be noted before we examine specific findings. First, you will see by glancing down the three columns on the right hand side of the page, that each role characteristic relates similarly to our three satisfaction measures in terms of the direction of the relationship and relative magnitude of the correlation. Satisfaction with teaching as a career, in the last column, generally has a lower correlation to each job characteristic than either measure of job satisfaction. Still, the importance of the specific role characteristics of the teacher's <u>current</u> job to his overall assessment of his career is fairly high.

Another somewhat surprising finding in Table 3-6 is that our two measures of satisfaction with current position correlate very similarly with all of the role characteristics, despite the fact that each measures satisfaction quite differently, and that they correlate with each other only .27. These facts suggest that if the two <u>job</u> satisfaction measures were combined into an <u>index</u> of job satisfaction, the index would yield even higher correlations than did either of its components. (Incidentally, we plan to build such an index for future analyses.)

Turning now to the effects of specific role characteristics, the one which has the highest correlation to all three measures of satisfaction is the first, which is the opportunity the teaching position provides to utilize one's special skills and knowledge. As you may recall from Table 3-2, this role characteristic also showed up as one of the <u>greatest</u> sources of satisfaction for teachers.

The use of one's skills and knowledge is one of two components of "self-actualization" according to the definition of that concept given by French and Sherwood (French, 1963). The other component is the acquisition of new skills and knowledge. French and Sherwood consider the two processes to be important determinants of self-esteem. Our data suggest that for teachers, they are also quite important determinants of job and career satisfaction, although the acquisition of new skills and knowledge

Table 3-5

Satisfaction Related to:

Sex of Teacher; Being a Department

Head; Having a Department Head

	Job Satisfaction (General)	Job Satisfaction (Dollar)	Career Satisfaction
Sample Mean	4.85	5.32	4.15
Standard Deviation	1.35	2.07	1.02
Male (Mean response). . . . . N = 1162	4.81	5.02	4.01
Female (Mean response). . . . . N = 903	4.92	5.70	4.34
Department Head . . . . . N = 364	4.97	5.50	4.12
Not Department Head . . . . . N = 1693	4.83	5.28	4.16
Have Department Head . . . . . N = 1766	4.86	5.33	4.14
No Department Head . . . . . N = 291	4.83	5.27	4.21

Table 3-6

Teacher Satisfaction Related to Role Characteristics

Eta-Squared		PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS: Job Satisf. (General)	Job Satisf. (Dollar)	Satisf. Career
	SELF-ACTUALIZATION			
.08	Opportunity to use present skills and knowledge	.30	.25	.27
.12	Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge	.19	.20	.13
	STUDENTS			
.10	How much they like the students in their school	.26	.21	.18
.10	Opportunity to get to know students well	.13	.09	.14
	OTHER TEACHERS			
.08	Opportunity to spend time with faculty and staff	.10	.03	.08
	PRINCIPAL'S BASES OF POWER			
.17	Expert -- professional respect	.21	.20	.10
.12	Coercive -- ability to penalize	-.11	-.12	-.06
.08	Legitimate -- hierarchical rights	.06	.04	.04
.07	Reward -- ability to reward	.08	.04	.04
.14	Referent -- personal respect	.19	.17	.06
	AWARENESS, HELPING, AND TRUST			
.08	Awareness by others of one's teaching effectiveness (7 items)	.22	.21	.16
.10	Help from others to improve teaching (4 items)	.20	.22	.17
.14	Felt freedom to expose problems and uncertainties to administrators in school	.25	.20	.12
	TEACHER'S OWN INFLUENCE			
.14	Influence on principal	.22	.21	.13
.15	Influence in decision-making in the school (5 items)	.17	.15	.14
.13	Influence in teachers' association	.07	.01	.07
	OVERLOAD AND INTERFERENCE			
.05	Subjective role overload (3 items)	-.16	-.11	-.15
.10	Administrative duties interfere with teaching	-.10	-.13	-.12

appears to be considerably less important than the use of existing skills.

The next most important correlate with our measures of satisfaction is the degree to which teachers like the students in their school. The original question reads, "How much do you like the students you teach in this school in comparison to the students in most other schools?" Ninety-three percent of the teachers answered in the top three points of a five-point scale, thus indicating that they like their students as much as or more than the students in other schools. This highly skewed distribution may be a result of a strong social desirability bias. Nevertheless, the discriminations among the top three points must have had some meaning, because this variable correlates moderately with job and career satisfaction and exhibits between-school variability.

The relationship of the teacher to his principal did not prove to be as strong a determinant of satisfaction as we might have expected. The five job characteristics listed under the "Principal's Bases of Power" show the correlations between satifaction and the amount of five different kinds of power the teacher attributes to his principal. These five "bases of power" are taken from the work of French and Raven (1959). The respondent is asked to rate how important each of the five reasons is in getting him (the teacher) to comply when his principal attempts to influence him.

Studies in colleges and various business settings have shown that job satisfaction and productivity are usually positively related to the amount of expert and referent power a supervisor or dean has in his relationships with his subordinates, and they are sometimes negatively related to his legitimate and coercive power. (Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus, 1968) Our findings for secondary school principals are generally consistent with these findings in other settings. The amount of <u>expert</u> power he has is the most important for the job and career satisfaction of his teachers. In fact, the expert power attributed by teachers to their principal correlates .59 to the amount of satisfaction they specifically derive from "the way the principal handles his job".[2]

The next grouping of role characteristics entitled "awareness, helping and trust" are some summary measures which deal with the teacher's relationship to a whole set of relevant others in the school. All three of these variables show moderate correlations with teacher satisfaction. The first, "awareness by others of one's teaching effectiveness," correlates .5 with the amount of help received from others in the school, suggesting that administrators may become aware of their teachers' effectiveness largely or primarily in the process of trying to help them to improve their teaching.[3]

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[2]One additional note on the relationship of bases of power to our four criteria. Only coercive power seems to be related to undesirable outcomes. Previous studies have shown legitimate power to relate negatively to satisfaction with position and supervisor, but in those studies each basis of power was ranked (rather than independently rated) which may mean that previous findings of a negative relationship between satisfaction and legitimate power were artifacts of the method, as has been previously suggested by Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus (1968).

[3]A four-part question asked "How much does each of the following (either knowingly or unknowingly) help you to improve your teaching?" Respondents then answer for (a) their students, (b) other teachers, (c) administrators,

The third variable in this set, the extent to which teachers feel free to expose to their administrators the problems and uncertainties they experience in the classroom correlates .30 with the amount of help teachers receive from others. This finding further suggests that teachers are more able to receive help from administrators in whom they feel they can confide their problems and uncertainties. If so, it would seem that the role of the principal as evaluator of his teachers may be incompatible with his role as one who helps them to develop.

So far, the role characteristics we have considered in this section deal with how the social environment impacts on the teacher. We also have a set of variables which measure the amount of impact the teacher feels he is able to have on his social environment -- namely the influence he has on certain groups and in certain decisions. As you can see, the direct influence the teacher has on his principal appears to be the most important of these for teacher satisfaction -- perhaps even more important than the influence he has in a broad set of specific decision making areas.

A word of caution should be given about interpreting findings such as those in Table 3-6. As with most cross-sectional survey findings which involve "soft" variables -- that is, ones which call for a good deal of judgement on the part of the respondent -- there remains some ambiguity as to what the correlations actually mean. It is possible that they reflect only a "halo effect" and not "true" statistical relationships. Further, if there is a true statistical relationship and even if it is due to a causal relation between the variables, the direction of causality is still not clear.

With a design such as ours in which a number of teachers from each school give data about the same organizational realities, we can use the mean of their individual answers as a more reliable estimate of the "true" situation. Then, by using that mean in correlational analyses, we can eliminate some of the "halo effect" and other response biases from our correlations (Bachman, Smith, and Slesinger, 1966). We do plan to carry out such analyses; but until we do, we will continue to view findings such as those in Table 3-6 as being somewhat tentative.

These findings do, however, give us some promising paths to explore, and an interesting first look at our cross section of high school teachers. A summary of these early findings includes the fact that the aspects of the individual teacher's task assignment as it is traditionally defined tend to be his greatest sources of satisfaction -- his chance to use his skills, his independence, his course and student assignments. On the negative side, various aspects of administrative behavior appear to be the greatest sources of dissatisfaction. (However, these are also the job characteristics which show the greatest variance between schools, suggesting that they are not necessarily major sources of dissatisfaction in all schools.)

In balance, the large majority of our high school teachers described themselves as quite satisfied with their career choice and with their current positions. Those teachers who see their present job and overall

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and (d) other resource people provided by the school. The most substantial between-school differences occurred for "administrators" and "other resource people" (eta-squared = .13 and .09 respectively).

career as the most satisfying tend to describe their jobs as affording more opportunity to use and develop their skills, and more opportunity to get to know students and other teachers. The most satisfied teachers also say that they feel less burdened by administrative duties, that they feel more free to expose their problems to administrators, that they generally get more help to improve their teaching, and that others in the school are more aware of their teaching effectiveness. They relate to their principal more on the basis of personal and professional respect, and feel that they are more able to influence him on matters of importance to them. Finally, they generally feel that they have more influence in school decisions than do less satisfied teachers.

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Factors Related to Counselor Ratings of Guidance and Counseling Programs

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INTRODUCTION

This final data presentation has two foci: the first part of the paper centers on a national sample of high school counselors, and the second part deals with the counseling environments of a national sample of high school boys. Most of the data to be considered here come from the "Counselor Questionnaire," sent to each person identified as spending at least 20 percent of a full-time load in guidance and counseling activities at the 87 schools in our sample; and from the "Counseling Program Questionnaire," sent to the head of counseling in each school.

The first part of the paper will be similar in content to the previous paper, in that it will deal with aspects of the counselor's role that are related to his satisfaction with his job. We consider counselor satisfaction important in itself, and also feel that it is reasonable to expect that it should be related to the quality of counseling provided to students.

The second part of the paper represents a first step toward our eventual goal of relating the organizational data to outcomes for boys. We will take counselor ratings of their schools' counseling programs as a dimension along which the schools can be compared, and examine aspects of the counseling programs that correlate with this measure.

CORRELATES OF COUNSELOR SATISFACTION

Counselor Questionnaires were returned by 318 persons out of the 367 to whom they were sent. Three of the respondents proved inappropriate because they counseled only girls or spent less than 20 percent of their time on counseling activities, so we were left with a sample of 315. These data were weighted so that they would more closely represent a national sample of high school counselors; the weighted sample size is 458. The following data refer to this weighted sample.

Table 4-1 summarizes some descriptive data concerning the counselor sample. It is interesting to compare these data with data concerning the teacher sample. The counselors have more education than the teachers: 87 percent of the counselors have a Master's Degree, while only 44 percent of the teachers have this degree. This datum can also be compared with data from two previous studies of counselors, both conducted in about 1960. In the Project Talent study (Flanagan, et. al., 1962), 70 percent of the high school counselors had a Master's Degree; the higher proportion reporting this degree in the current study may reflect slightly different sampling procedures, but may also reflect a real increase in educational level among counselors. In a study of members of the American School Counselor Association (Wrenn, 1962), 89 percent reported having a Master's Degree.

The counselors in the present study reported more years of experience than did the teachers; the average teacher has had less than 12 years of

Table 4-1

Characteristics of National Samples of Counselors and Teachers

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL: "What is the highest level of education you have attained?"

	% COUNSELORS	% TEACHERS
1. High school	0.0	0.0
2. Some college	0.0	1
3. Bachelor's Degree	0.2	11
4. Bachelor's Degree plus some credit	13	43
5. Master's Degree	13	12
6. Master's Degree plus some credit	74	31
7. Doctor's Degree	0.4	0.8
Missing Data	0.0	0.6

EXPERIENCE

Counseling experience: Years of counseling and guidance experience (either part-time or full-time).

MEAN = 7.4 years

S.D. = 5.8 years

Total experience: Sum of counseling experience plus years spent as a teacher before becoming a counselor.

MEAN = 17.1 years

S.D. = 9.7 years

Teachers: Years of full-time teaching experience.

MEAN = 11.8 years

S.D. = 10.4 years

SATISFACTION: '"Taking all things into consideration, how satisfied are you (with high school counseling as a career?)...(with your present counseling position in this school?)...(with your present teaching position?)."

	% COUNSELORS		% TEACHERS
	Satis. Career	Satis. Posit.	Satis. Posit.
1. Very dissatisfied	2	6	4
2. Fairly dissatisfied	2	9	5
3. Slightly dissatisfied	4	6	6
4. Slightly satisfied.	3	5	6
5. Fairly satisfied	38	39	42
6. Very satisfied	49	34	37
Missing Data	2	1	1
MEAN	5.24	4.64	4.85
S.D.	1.08	1.53	1.35

full-time teaching experience, whereas the average counselor has a total of more than 17 years of teaching and counseling experience.

Table 4-1 reveals that most counselors are satisfied both with counseling as a career and with their present counseling position. However, while only 8 percent are at all dissatisfied with counseling as a career, 21 percent express some dissatisfaction with their current situations. Counselors are also somewhat less satisfied with their situations than are teachers. The counselors evidently feel that there is some room for improvement in the school counseling role. With this thought in mind, we will now look at some factors that are related to the satisfaction measure. Some of these correlates are listed in Table 4-2; descriptions of the variables, and response distributions, are given in Table 4-6. Because of the possible distortions resulting from the use of weights in the definition of the sample, only correlations that are significant at least at the 5 percent level for both weighted and unweighted data are reported in Table 4-2. The correlations shown in the table are for the weighted sample, which represents our best estimate of the nation's high school counselors.

The highest correlate of satisfaction is an index score labelled "Principal Supportiveness." This index is based on four questions concerned with the counselor's perceptions of the principal's attitudes toward himself and the counseling program. The principal is evidently a potent influence on the counselor. The importance of this particular role relationship is emphasized by the much smaller correlations between the satisfaction measure and two measures concerned with interpersonal relations with other school personnel: an index measuring "teacher supportiveness" and a measure of "counselor cooperativeness." (See Table 4-6 for descriptions of these measures.) It is possible that satisfaction shows a stronger relation to principal supportiveness than to the measures of other school personnel in part because of the greater ambiguity in the referrent of the latter measures: the principal is a single individual, while the teachers and often the counselors are groups of individuals.

It is clear that the counselor's relations with his role set -- teachers, other counselors, and especially his principal -- are important determinants of his satisfaction with his present position. Now we can ask what other aspects of the counselor's role are correlated with his satisfaction. The highest correlate is the variable labelled "role autonomy" (see Table 4-6 for the exact question). The counselor evidently wants freedom to carry out his own ideas in his role. However, this does not imply that the counselor wants an unstructured situation. On the contrary, an ill-defined role is associated with less satisfaction, as shown by the positive correlation between the variable labelled "role definition" and the satisfaction measure. Also, Table 4-6 reveals that only 2 percent of the counselors feel that they receive too much guidance and direction from their administrators, whereas 37 percent feel that they have been given too little.

The next variable listed in Table 4-2 is "subjective role overload." The same three-item index was also used for teachers, and counselors are higher on this index than teachers; counselors more often feel that they have too heavy a workload. It is interesting to go further and try to determine what aspect of their work load produces this feeling. Previous studies (Flanagan, et. al., 1962; Wrenn, 1962) have revealed that counselors feel they are given too many routine clerical and administrative tasks,

Table 4-2

Correlates of Counselor Satisfaction with Position

RELATIONS WITH OTHER SCHOOL PERSONNEL

1. Principal supportiveness 49

   4-item index: includes items about principal's approachability, openness to counselor influence, recognition of value of counseling program

2. Teacher supportiveness 19

   3-item index: questions similar to those about principal

3. Counselor cooperativeness 26

   Single item: extent to which counselors in school help one another

OTHER ROLE CHARACTERISTICS

4. Role autonomy 47

   "opportunity to carry out own ideas"

5. Role definition 38

   "guidance and direction from administrators"

6. Subjective role overload . . . . . -.25

   3-item index: too much work to finish, too much to do well

7. Administrative duties interfere with counseling . . -.40

8. Efficiency of skill usage 30

COUNSELING PROGRAM

9. Counselor's evaluation of overall program 44

and the present study indicates that this feeling has not been eliminated. Note also the high negative correlation, -.40, between satisfaction and the response to a question concerning the extent to which routine administrative duties interfere with counseling. The last two correlates in Table 4-2 will be discussed later.

Table 4-3 summarizes data concerning how counselors distribute the time allotted to them for guidance and counseling activities. The average counselor reported spending 43 hours, in and out of school, on counseling and guidance related work. Of this total, an average of 17 hours was devoted to counseling sessions with individual students, and 2.4 hours to group counseling sessions. Over four hours is spent each week talking to the parents of students. Fifty-nine percent of the counselors reported spending no time disciplining students; the remaining 41 percent spend an average of almost five hours a week on discipline. Almost 13 hours a week is spent on various types of paper work and on clerical tasks.

Table 4-3 also presents data concerning how the counselors distribute the counseling time devoted to boys in grades 10 through 12; they report an average of about 23 percent is spent in helping boys to select and gain admission to colleges and other schools, and about 7 percent in helping boys to secure permanent employment. Seventeen percent of the time is spent in counseling boys about personal problems. Finally, they report devoting 21 percent of the time to advising the boys on course selection; this latter estimate is somewhat suspect, and if anything is probably conservative, since data from the Counseling Program Questionnaire suggest a higher proportion of counseling time is devoted to course advising. The discrepancy may reflect ambiguity in the question, since helping students select courses may well involve consideration of career and educational plans.

It would probably be difficult to decide what proportions of the times shown in Table 4-3 reflect good utilization of the training and experience of counselors. However, the counselors were asked to report the proportion of the time allotted to counseling activities in which they felt appropriate use was made of their skills as a counselor. The distribution of responses to this question is shown at the bottom of Table 4-3, and may be summarized by saying that the average counselor reported that he felt only two-thirds (66 percent) of his time was used efficiently. A positive correlate of this efficiency measure is the hours per week actually spent in individual or group counseling ($r = .32$); a negative correlate is hours per week spent on clerical tasks ($r = -.26$). The efficiency measure itself is correlated with satisfaction ($r = .30$). A comparable finding concerning teachers was pointed out by Lloyd Johnston in the previous paper, though rather different measures are involved. In the case of teachers, a measure of self-utilization -- opportunity to use one's skills -- was also correlated .30 with job satisfaction. Thus it apparently continues to be true that high schools are using rather highly trained, well-experienced personnel for routine clerical tasks, thereby evidently causing some dissatisfaction among counselors, and presumably depriving students of counseling time. It seems safe to think that both of these effects would have undesired consequences for students, and eventually we will be able to test this hypothesis by relating these variables to outcomes for boys in our national sample. At this stage we can make a preliminary assessment by using the counselor ratings of the quality of their school's counseling program. There is also a correlation of about .38 between a counselor's rating of the program and his assessment of the efficiency with which his time is utilized. There is a negative correlation

Table 4-3

Time Distribution Per Week

	Median	Mean	S.D.
Required time in school per week, all activities	40.2 hours	38.6 hours	5.1 hours
Additional time on counseling and guidance activities	5.8	7.5	6.9
Total time to counseling and guidance activities	43.1	43.0	10.5
Individual counseling	16.9 hours	16.8 hours	7.4 hours
Group counseling	2.1	2.4	2.7
Discipline	0.7	1.3	3.6
Discussions with parents	4.3	4.3	3.0
Paperwork	6.6	8.5	6.8
Clerical tasks	3.5	4.2	4.4
Distribution of time devoted to boys in grades 10 - 12:			
Occupational decisions	20.8%	23.3%	13.6%
College selection, admission	19.3%	20.5%	14.7%
Employment placement	4.7%	6.9%	6.2%
Personal counseling	9.9%	16.8%	15.6%
Course selection advising	19.2%	21.1%	15.2%
Other	9.4%	11.9%	11.7%

Efficiency of skill usage: "For what proportion of the time you spend in guidance and counseling activities would you say that appropriate use is made of your skills and training as a guidance counselor?"

1. 0% 0.4%
2. 1 - 19% . . 3%
3. 20 - 39% . . 10%
4. 40 - 59% . . 25%
5. 60 - 79% . . 30%
6. 80 - 99% . . 25%
7. 100% . . . 6%

Missing Data 2%

MEAN = 4.82

S.D. = 1.19

of about -.21 between rating of the program and hours spent on clerical tasks per week.

COUNSELING PROGRAMS

This brings us to the second part of the paper, which is a consideration of characteristics of counselors and counseling programs that are related to evaluations of the effectiveness of these programs. As pointed out earlier, we will eventually be able to relate these school characteristics to changes that occur in the boys who attend these schools and about whom we are collecting longitudinal data over their high school years. Unitl this becomes possible, we feel that it is useful to consider ratings of program effectiveness as probable mediating variables which we expect will turn out to be related to boys' outcome variables.

Four evaluations of school counseling programs were provided by the counselors in each school, as shown in Table 4-4. They first evaluated the overall guidance and counseling program; second, counseling provided to college-bound boys; third, counseling to boys not planning to attend college; and fourth, counseling provided to students concerning their personal problems. The exact questions, and the weighted response distributions, are given in Table 4-4. The mean response[1] by all counselors in a given school is used as the evaluation of that school's counseling program. An additional evaluation was provided by the teachers in each school, who were asked to rate the performance of counselors in other schools. Again, the mean response of all the teachers in a school was used as the evaluation of that school's counselors.

These five evaluations were correlated with various other variables about the counselors and the counseling programs in each school. Since the purpose is to describe the counseling environments of our national sample of high school boys, the data were weighted by the number of boys in that school's sample; the average sample size is almost 30 boys, and the range is from 13 to 55. Some school and counselor characteristics that relate significantly to at least one of the five evaluation variables are listed in Table 4-5. An obvious limitation in interpreting these data is that we have not controlled for the effects of factors such as school size, urbanicity, or socio-economic status of the student body. Also, since the school sample size is only 87, the correlations have large confidence intervals, so that small differences between correlations should not be taken very seriously. Correlations that are not significant at the five percent level are indicated by parentheses.

The first set of variables shown in Table 4-5 is characteristics of the counselors in the schools. A variable that is conspicuous by its absense

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[1] More accurately, a weighted mean was used for each school, weighting each counselor within a school by the proportion of a full-time counseling load he devotes to boys in grades 10-12. It is important that this weighting procedure be distinguished from two other weighting procedures described in this paper: 1) the method of weighting individual counselors to approximate a national sample of counselors; and 2) the method of weighting school data to approximate the counseling environment of a national sample of boys.

Table 4-4

Evaluations of Counseling Program and Counselor Performance

COUNSELOR EVALUATIONS OF COUNSELING PROGRAM:	Percentage: 1. Very Poor	2. Poor	3. Fair	4. Good	5. Excellent	Missing Data	Mean	S.D.
"1. How would you rate the overall guidance and counseling program provided for boys in your high school?	2*	2	38	51	3	4	3.49	0.71
"2. How would you rate the quality of counseling provided to boys in your high school relevant to going to college. . .?"	2	0	8	72	14	4	3.96	0.68
"3. How would you rate the quality of the career-relevant counseling provided to boys in your school who are not planning to attend college. . .?"	2	3	51	38	2	4	3.33	0.69
"4. How would you rate the effectiveness of the counseling program in helping students to deal with their personal (interpersonal and emotional) problems?"	3	2	42	46	2	4	3.37	0.72

TEACHER EVALUATION OF COUNSELOR PERFORMANCE:

"On the average, how would you rate the performance of the following groups or persons in your school in contrast to the performance of people in comparable jobs in other schools?"

c. Counselors:

1.	Far below average	2%
2.	Somewhat below average	0%
3.	Slightly below average	16%
4.	Slightly above average	67%
5.	Somewhat above average	14%
6.	Far above average	1%
	Missing data	1%

MEAN = 3.86

S.D. = 0.68

*Percentages in this table refer to the percentage of high school boys who have a counseling program of the stated quality, as judged by taking the mean rating of all counselors or teachers in each school in the sample and weighting each school by the sample size of the boys from that school in the national sample.

Table 4-5

Correlates of Ratings of Counseling Programs and Counselor Performance

COUNSELOR CHARACTERISTICS	Data* Source	Total Program	College Counseling	Non-College Counseling	Personal Counseling	Counselor Performance
Years since last course in guidance and counseling subject	C	-.28	-.21	-.27	-.44	-.26
Practicum in counseling	C	(.04)	(.18)	.24	.33	(.07)
Satisfaction with present position	C	.51	.41	.36	.35	.22
Satisfaction with counseling as a career	C	.29	.32	.35	.34	(.04)
Teacher rating of counselor performance	T	.32	(.18)	(.11)	.36	--
COUNSELOR ROLE CHARACTERISTICS						
Subjective role overload	C	-.25	-.33	-.34	-.24	(-.08)
Efficiency rating (skill usage)	C	.50	.66	.48	.44	.26
Principal and teacher supportiveness	C	.35	.31	.25	.30	(.15)
Counselor cooperativeness	C	.31	.27	.34	.21	(-.11)
Role autonomy	C	.52	.47	.36	.39	.21
Role definition	C	.33	.24	.19	.22	(.10)
"Pressure" for effective performance	C	.41	.30	.23	.22	(.16)
Objectives of school administrators:	T					
Prevent dropouts		.30	.21	.35	.33	(-.05)
Improve students' social and psychological adjustment		.46	.25	.34	.41	(.05)
Increase student understanding of occupational opportunities, requisites		.49	.31	.40	.36	.23
Respond to <u>individual</u> academic needs of students		.46	.26	.32	.45	.30
Get high proportion of students into college		.31	.30	.22	.33	.37
SCHOOL FACILITIES						
Privacy for individual counseling	H	.40	.26	.25	.30	(.11)
Space for group counseling	H	.23	.25	.22	(.09)	(.00)
Adequacy of test collection	H	.44	.41	.22	.35	(.11)
Clerical assistance	H	.38	.31	.29	.30	.26
Budget for counseling program (non-salary)	H	.31	.33	.18	(.14)	(.05)

Table 4-5 (CONTINUED)

SCHOOL PROGRAMS	Data* Source	Total Program	College Counseling	Non-College Counseling	Personal Counseling	Counselor Performance
Follow-up program	H	.25	(.17)	(.15)	(.11)	(.14)
Usage of placement programs	H	(.07)	(.14)	.31	(.11)	(-.03)
Test administration and interpretation to students	H	.29	.27	(.13)	.28	(.08)
Information to students about environment	H	.33	(.18)	.25	.29	(.08)
Counselor improvement opportunities	H	.36	.26	(.13)	.33	.24
Conferences, etc., attended by counselors	C	.32	(.18)	(.03)	(.14)	(.16)
OTHER SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS						
Urban-rural	P	.35	.19	(.09)	.29	.35
Socio-economic level of students	B	.18	(.16)	(-.03)	(.16)	(.17)
Proportion of graduates to college	P	.22	(.00)	(-.12)	(.18)	.27
School innovativeness	T	.51	.31	.29	.46	.35

*Data sources used in this analysis are as follows:

C: mean response of counselors in each school
H: response in Counseling Program Questionnaire, completed by head of program in each school
T: mean response of teachers in each school
P: response by principal in each school
B: mean response of boys in each school

Table 4-6

Counselor Questionnaire Items:

Descriptions and Percentage Response Distributions

	Not at all (1)	To a Slight Extent (2)	To a Moderate Extent (3)	To a Considerable Extent (4)	To a Great Extent (5)	Missing data
1. Principal supportiveness: "To what extent does each of the following apply for the principal in your school?"						
a. He is friendly and easily approached . . .	2%	16%	18%	26%	37%	0.2%
b. He treats counselors as colleagues on an equal footing with himself rather than as subordinates	15	14	15	28	27	0.2
c. He is receptive to my influence on matters of concern to me	7	14	20	29	27	0.2
d. He recognizes the value of an effective counseling program	7	13	16	28	37	0.2
Index: Mean of items a-d	Mean = 3.66; S.D. = 1.15					
2. Teacher supportiveness: "To what extent does each of the following apply for the majority of teachers with whom you have contact in your school?"						
a. They are friendly to counselors here . . .	0.2	4	27	46	22	0.7
b. They try to cooperate with counselors in dealing with students	0.2	3	31	44	21	0.9
c. They recognize the value of an effective counseling program	0.2	11	44	31	13	0.2
Index: Mean of items a-c	Mean = 3.72; S.D. = 0.74					
3. Counselor cooperativeness: "To what extent do [guidance counselors in your school] help one another to deal with problems in their work?". .	1	4	17	32	35	0.2
(Only one counselor in school)	11%					
	Mean = 4.09; S.D. = 0.92					

4. Role autonomy: "How much opportunity do you have to carry out your own ideas in your counseling role?"

1. Little or no Opportunity	6%	
2. Some	16	
3. A moderate amount	18	MEAN = 3.57
4. A considerable amount	37	S.D. = 1.17
5. A great deal of opportunity . .	24	

5. Role definition: "How much guidance and direction have you received from administrators in your school relevant to what you should be doing in your role as a counselor?"

1. None at all	18%	
2. A little	35	
3. A moderate amount	33	MEAN = 2.48
4. A considerable amount	10	S.D. = 1.04
5. A great deal	5	

"How does this fit in with what you want?"

1. Far too little	10%	
2. Too little	27	
3. About the right amount	60	MEAN = 2.55
4. Too much	1	S.D. = 0.72
5. Far too much	1	
Missing data	1	

6. Subjective role overload: three-item index:	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Missing data
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	
a. "How often do you feel that you can't get to the really important things because of immediate demands?"	1%	14%	41%	43%	1%	0%
b. "How often do you feel that you have too heavy a workload, one that you can't possibly finish?"	5	21	42	25	7	0
c. "How often do you feel that the amount of work you have to do may interfere with how well it gets done?"	4	18	35	40	4	0.2

Mean = 3.20; S.D. = 0.74

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Missing data
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	
7. Administrative duties interfere: "How often do your routine administrative duties interfere with your counseling?"	5	16	34	40	4	0.4

MEAN = 3.21; S.D. = 0.94

9. Counselor's evaluation of overall program: "How would you rate the overall guidance and counseling program provided for boys in your high school?"

1. Very poor	1%
2. Poor.	6
3. Fair.	30
4. Good.	56
5. Excellent	7
Missing data.	0.2

MEAN = 3.28

S.D. = 0.86

from this table is mean educational level attained by the counselors. The failure of this variable to correlate with the evaluation variables may indicate that a considerable proportion of the counselors have their education in a field other than guidance and counseling. This interpretation is supported by the correlations found between the evaluations and the mean number of years since the counselor's last course in guidance and counseling. The proportion of a school's counselors who have had a practicum in counseling is related to the evaluation of personal counseling, but not to most of the other evaluations.

Another variable that showed no significant correlation with any of the evaluations is experience. Neither years of counseling experience, nor total years of teaching and counseling experience, was associated with rated quality of the counseling programs.

In the first part of this paper, we hypothesized that factors that cause dissatisfaction among counselors would tend to lower the quality of counseling provided to students. We can now make a preliminary test of this hypothesis by looking at the correlation between mean satisfaction and mean rating of a school's counseling program. On the school level, the correlation between these two variables is quite high, r=.51. There is also a correlation, though not as high, between mean satisfaction with counseling as a career and mean evaluation of the school's program. Somewhat reassuringly, there is also a positive correlation (r=.32) between the teachers' evaluation of counselor performance and the counselors' evaluation of the counseling program.

The next set of variables is aspects of the counseling role in the high schools, most of which we have already considered on the individual counselor level. There is a negative correlation between subjective overload and counselor evaluations, but this does not extend to the teacher evaluation of counselors. Similarly, there is a rather high positive correlation between all of the evaluations and the counselors' ratings of the efficiency with which their skills are utilized.

There are moderate positive correlations between evaluation of the counseling program and indices of supportiveness and cooperativeness from other school personnel. There are also correlations with variables concerned with role-sending from other school personnel: role autonomy and role definition, about which we talked earlier, and an index labelled "pressure for effective performance." The latter index is based on six items in the Counselor Questionnaire concerning pressure from various members of the counselor's role set -- teachers, principal, students, etc. -- on the counselors "to reach or maintain a high level of effectiveness" in their counseling.

There are also interesting positive correlations between the evaluations and mean teacher assessment of the importance of various objectives to the school's administrators, which were discussed by Jere Johnston in the second paper. No particular pattern is observable among the objectives examined thus far; perhaps low ratings indicate an apathetic or overburdened administration which is also reflected in poor counseling programs.

The third set of variables in Table 4-5 is concerned with school facilities in support of the counseling program. There are moderate correlations between counselor evaluations and adequacy of private rooms

for counseling, space for group counseling, collection of psychological tests, clerical assistance, and the non-salary portion of the counseling program budget. The importance of clerical assistance is again brought out by the fact that only this item shows a significant correlation with teachers' evaluation of counselor performance.

The fourth set of correlates is various types of school programs. Schools that have a follow-up program for keeping track of some or all of the former students are rated by counselors as having somewhat better overall counseling programs than are schools without any follow-up program. The proportion of boys who use various types of placement services provided by the school to help them to secure employment is related to the quality of counseling for non-college-bound students.

The next two variables are measures of the amount of information provided to students about themselves and about their environment. The proportion of students who are given various types of tests, and then provided feedback from the results of these tests, is related to evaluations of the counseling programs. Similarly, the number of ways in which information about careers, job opportunities, post-high school education, and colleges is provided to students is also related to evaluations of the counseling program.

The number of ways in which the school and school system provide for the continuing education of counselors is related to evaluations of the programs and of counselor performance. Also, the number of conferences, workshops, and training sessions related to guidance and counseling that are attended by counselors is related to evaluation of the overall program.

The final set of variables is a miscellaneous category labelled school characteristics. The urban-rural dimension is one which we would like to be able to partial out in examining correlations between the evaluations and other predictor variables. However, because of the rather small number of schools in our sample, and because of the use of weighted data, such partial correlations would have very large confidence intervals and would probably not be very useful. We can note that there are indeed correlations between the urban-rural dimension and the evaluation variables. There is also a small correlation between evaluation of the overall program and the mean socio-economic level of the students in a school's sample.[2] The proportion of graduates who go on to college, which itself is correlated .48 with mean socio-economic status of the students, is also correlated to some degree with evaluation of the overall program and with teacher evaluation of counselor performance, but surprisingly shows no relation to evaluation of counseling provided to college-bound students.

The final variable is one of the most interesting, at least potentially. This variable, school innovativeness, is based on a question asking teachers to rate the "overall innovativeness of [their] high school (in terms of how

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[2]The socio-economic level is measured by an index developed by Dr. Jerald Bachman (Bachman, et. al., 1968).

often new ways of administration, organization, teaching, counseling, etc. are used)," and shows moderate to high correlations with the evaluations. This variable is correlated with many of the other variables in Table 4-5, such as counselor role autonomy and role definition, personnel supportiveness of counseling, and in particular has correlations of .40 to .77 with the five ratings of administrator objectives. This seems to be tapping a general factor of administrator quality as perceived by the teachers.

In conclusion, it appears that administrative practices, as perceived by counselors and teachers, are rather closely related to counselors' satisfaction with their situations, and to their assessment of the counseling provided to students. This preliminary analysis of counselor and counseling program data indicates that administrators increase counselor satisfaction and their assessment of the quality of counseling to the extent that they are concerned with problems in their schools and are innovative in their approaches to these problems; to the extent that they give counselors freedom to be innovative, but also support counselors and the counseling program and make their expectations of the counseling role clear; and to the extent that they are able to relieve counselors of routine administrative and clerical tasks. We look forward with great interest to seeing how these aspects of counseling programs relate to boys' outcomes.

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INTRODUCTION TO THE DISCUSSION SESSION

Joseph Johnston
University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri

The remarks offered now are from two professors at the University of Missouri at Columbia. They have both read the papers just delivered and attempt to comment now in terms of their particular backgrounds.

They have been asked to comment particularly in terms of their particular areas of interest. Dr. John Ferguson is Chairman of the Department of Counseling and Personnel Services and sees himself as a statistician and counselor educator. Dr. Paul Polmantier is Chairman of the Department of Educational Psychology and has a major interest in the study of adolescents in addition to having spent many years as a counselor educator. Both men have a strong committment to education and the public schools in particular.

Let me suggest that all bear in mind that these two gentlemen have been asked to react to this study but each was instructed to limit his remarks to fifteen minutes. Equally important, since we are looking at the study at a time when changes might still be made, each was asked to attempt to be critical and suggestive and I believe all involved with this presentation would agree that all efforts have been directed toward that goal.

One last point. We all agree we are looking at the beginning of a rather monumental, and quite likely, a rather significant study of youth today. The impact of this study will be with us for some time. If any of the reamrks that follow seem critical, this point should be kept in mind. We are looking at a study in process and not a completed project. The effort and comment offered are intended only to make what all of us have agreed is an impressive study even moreso. If these gentlemen provoke any thinking about additional things that might be looked at, or can prompt some additional thinking about any of the task already initiated, they will have fulfilled their roles.

DISCUSSION OF THE PAPERS

John L. Ferguson
University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri

I want to commend this research staff for designing and undertaking this very sizable and complex research project. The report today represents only a small part of the total project. Later you will want to place this phase within the total research context.

I have been very impressed with the project and the procedures developed. The basic design appears very sound and I am primarily concerned with the icing on the cake rather than the cake itself.

The comments that follow should not be taken as basic design criticism but rather as how I would like to see some of the icing:

1. Sampling procedures--These are very sophisticated but I don't have any real concept of what the mean or average school looks like. Statistics on such sampling procedures tend to yield wide within school variances and mask between school variances. It would be helpful if we could say that particular type schools (large, small, etc.) have certain selected characteristics that are relatively homogeneous.

2. Item Scaling--Several items suffer the lack of precise definitions of response categories. The scaling is often subject to individual rater's perception of how certain categories should be interpreted.

3. Variable Variation--A major part of the study concerns itself with characteristics of the school and the school's influence on the student. What are these characteristics and how and to what extent are they capable of influencing the students? In this regard, it is highly desirable that certain a priori hypotheses be investigated, since the correlational baseline data will tend to provide a positive manifold of intercorrelations: in general, these correlations will be small and possibly due to the narrow range of teacher characteristics, attitudes, and satisfaction. Most respondents have taught for a number of years and all express similar degrees of satisfaction. The dissatisfied left long ago.

4. Variable Validity--Of the variables investigated what evidence was there that these variables are capable of influencing the behavior of the students? Can we show that more satisfied teachers are more influential, or that counselors with administration support assist students to make wiser choices? Even if this is true, you may have difficulty establishing the validity. In one recent study all counselees rated the counseling they received as better than average, although the counselors had nominated the counselees as ones they had worked with either very effectively or ineffectively. Since the counselees had had only one counselor, they were not in the position to make valid comparisons.

5. General Comment--I believe the Institute staff has done a wonderful job of packaging together a very important area of educational research. In the final analysis, they will be able to provide important baseline data for some significant subsequent research. Many questions will be left unanswered, and will be unanswerable until better operational definitions and instrumentation is available.

DISCUSSION OF THE PAPERS

Paul Polmantier
University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri

In dealing with the topic and in dealing with the study, I am reminded of some of my own graduate days as an administrative fellow at the University of Minnesota. The WPA workers were grinding out intercorrelations for the staff members with regard to variables taken from reading tests and from instruments, and having a large intercorrelation table, and then trying to make something of it. In other words, there are some real problems in interpreting correlations. When you get them, maybe you've already satisfied, of course, the fact that they are significant; your N is usually large enough in a study to assure that, even if you didn't go to the table. There is a tremendous job in interpreting correlations which becomes even more difficult when the correlations are not very large.

You see, I am reminded also that J. M. Stephens has written in his first treatment in an educational psychology textbook to the effect that there wasn't any evidence that it made any difference what kind of school administration you had. That belief came from his review of the literature, which was some ten years ago. The important thing was the quality of the teaching staff and the success of the teachers. It's quite obvious here that we are a long way from relating the data in this symposium to the outcomes of the study--as to what these things really mean in terms of the assessment of the environment, and then in terms of their possible influence on the boys.

I am currently engaged in a task to go to ten different places in the state of Missouri to deal with demographic data which have been obtained from thousands of high school students who graduated in 1965, and to try, with the personnel from the schools in the areas, to see what can be made of the data. One bit of data stands out to me to be significant and that is when they ask the graduates to whom they would attribute the influence for many of the things they have done, (choosing a vocation, etc.), the greatest percentage of them indicated "they themselves", second in terms of influence were personal friends, third were parents, and way down the line, with a percentage that just scares the counselors and the administrators to the point where they want to quit, you have the counselors, and then finally the principals. And from the data, it looked as if the principal had no influence on them at all.

It's going to be a very difficult job to finish this study that's under way, and do something with it. Teachers and counselors seem to want administrators who are helpful who can do their jobs professionally, but there is a tremendous void here in terms of how the teachers see the administrators and how they see that he interprets things in contrast to how administrators see themselves - it's a second hand deal. What I'm saying is that what they say, what they think these principals think, and what the principals think, would be quite discrepant.

It is interesting here that we see a tendency that I think has been brought out by research going back to the studies that our students did when I was working specifically in a counseling program. We had several Q-sort

studies made, and the highest relationship always occurred between the counselors and the principal. In their perception of the role of the counselor, there was more consonance between the counselor and the principal than between the teacher and the counselor. The results we're finding in here may be due to the fact that we have a long way to go in educating the teacher as to what the role of the counselor is in the school. We have gone through the 1930's where somebody sold the idea of every teacher a counselor, and we had some strong negative feelings towards the counselors. And if you go into a high school today, I'm sure you could find many teachers who don't want any of these counselors around at all; and consequently, whenever you tap the teacher end of this, you're likely to get a built-in bias that's likely to affect the outcome.

Without going to the technical aspects of this, do young people in the high school receive a great deal from their contacts with principals? Do they receive a great deal from their contacts with counselors? And in this overall environment in which these people are operating with the students, do these things really have something to predict in terms of the behavior of the students both in the school and later on? I am reminded of Bloom's book on the stability and change of human characteristics. One of our major problems he brings out, and I certainly subscribe to it, is that we have a great need for the development of measuring instruments of environmental factors. And how can we develop instruments that will measure the environmental factors so that we can then relate them or show their influence upon the development of such a variable as intelligence, achievement, etc?

I am very interested in this project; I think it's very much worthwhile. A cursory glance at first would lead one to say, "Oh, this is another questionnaire study." But it's more than a questionnaire study because the research organization back of it has stature and the people who are getting the data through the interviews are trained and they are in the local communities where the schools are. They are individuals who have had some training through the research organization and they can carry on their jobs out in the schools. Of course, I would be interested to know to what extent these people might influence the results in their interviews with adolescents. I try to visualize, it would be interesting if we had a motion picture of one of these persons gathering data from one of the high school students. What kind of rapport was established? Was this a cold analytical type interview, or did the student like to deal with the person? And then also, in one of these ways that is mentioned in here, some data were gathered <u>off</u> the high school grounds. What they mean is simply that they interviewed the students away from the schools so that there might not be any bias involved in that.

Parenthetically, one could read from the study something that is rather disheartening, that the teachers are not particularly concerned about promotion. This variable isn't much of a factor. And I think mainly because of the reality of the situation, there isn't much chance to be promoted in a high school teaching job. You might become a department chairman if the school is big enough to make that position have some meaning but the pull has been away from teaching into assistant principalship and into principalship. And there are also some teachers who feel they have really made a tremendous stride if they become counselors and quit teaching. I'm distressed really with the findings in terms of the establishment as it exists. We want change, we don't know what changes we want, and we find out that the teachers are pretty well satisfied as they are. And some of us wonder if they have an

environment that is satisfactory for anybody who can walk on two legs.

If you look at this study in the perspective of the studies that are made of adolescents, you will see that this work has to be done, and that ultimately, hopefully, we will have some experimental studies in which some adolescents get it and some of them don't get it, kind of like the Salk vaccine with the placebo and all. Experimentally, this will have to come eventually. but we need studies of this type to deal with these variables. I have been checking the literature on adolescents in the 1960's, and it is very hard to locate studies in which actual experimentation with adolescents has taken place, and these gentlemen today are hoping that this study will give some basis for later experimental studies.

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